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News Notes

Survey of Junior College Curriculum. The American Association of Junior Colleges has received a grant of \$25,000 from the General Education Board of New York City to finance a series of exploratory studies in the general field of terminal education in the junior college. Approximately 500 accredited junior colleges are now found in the United States besides another hundred which are not yet thus recognized. About two-thirds of the 175,000 students enrolled in these institutions do not continue their formal education after leaving the junior college. The new study will be concerned particularly with courses and curricula of a semiprofessional and cultural character designed to give this increasing body of young people greater economic competence and civic responsibility. There is increasing evidence that existing four-year colleges and universities are not organized adequately to meet the needs of a large part of this significant group. It is anticipated that the exploratory study will reveal the need and the opportunity for a series of additional studies and experimental investigations and demonstrations which may cover several years of continuous effort. Immediate responsibility for the study will be vested in an executive committee consisting of Rosco C. Ingalls, Chairman; Doak S. Campbell, and Byron S. Hollinshead. The Director of the study will be Walter Crosby

Eells, Executive Secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D. C.

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Current Affairs Test Reveals Gaps in Curriculum. Some data bearing on the understandings and attitudes of Cincinnati boys and girls with respect to current civic and social affairs are available from a current affairs test given to high school seniors recently. The test was given to provide information which would be helpful to curriculum committees, particularly those engaged in preparing curriculum materials in the social studies field. Its results have been the basis of discussion at several meetings of teachers and principals called to discuss curriculum problems. The preparation and administration of the test was carried on as a joint project of the Curriculum Department and the Psychological Laboratory of the Cincinnati Public Schools.

Responses on the items dealing with conceptions of democracy show that a majority of high school seniors have a conception of democracy which is not limited to its narrow political aspects. For example, about three-fourths consider widespread unemployment to be a greater threat to the success of democracy than Communism; an even larger proportion hold that the provision of relief to unemployed persons is in keeping with democratic

ideals. A majority of the seniors believe that social policy with respect to freedom of speech and the press should be restricted during times of great social crises. However, over one-third would permit complete freedom irrespective of times, circumstances, and possible results.

The items dealing with social understandings show that many seniors are well informed with respect to certain social issues, but are poorly informed with respect to others, particularly those dealing with the local community. For example, over ninety per cent knew that the Social Security Act does not include farm workers, but nearly thirty per cent did not know how the city manager is chosen in Cincinnati. Responses on other items also suggest that young people are apparently lacking in specific information regarding local civic affairs.

Results for items dealing with listening and reading habits show that seniors spend much time listening to the radio and attending the movies. The average student spends over two hours daily listening to the radio and attends the movies about once a week. Over two-thirds devote more than two hours a week to reading the newspaper.

Responses on some of the questions suggest that many seniors are inadequately informed regarding the use of reference materials. For example, considerable numbers were unable to distinguish between the information to be found in *Who's Who* and in encyclopedias. Responses on other items showed a lack of information regarding contemporary literature. Many seniors were unable to identify, for example, Carl Sandburg, Pearl Buck, and Sinclair Lewis.

Several teachers and principals have pointed out that the responses on many items were not chiefly the result of classroom instruction, but were affected by outside experiences, such as listening to radio speeches.

Cooperative Study in General Education. The staff of consultants who will assist the colleges participating in the Cooperative Study in General Education include the following: Ralph W. Tyler, Head of the Department of Education, University of Chicago, is the Director; Ralph W. Ogan, who is associate director of the study, was for nine years dean of Muskingum College; George E. Barton, Jr., of the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, is responsible for the work in the humanities with particular emphasis upon philosophy and aesthetics; John L. Bergstresser, a consultant for the General Education Board, will work in the field of student personnel and counseling; Louis M. Heil of the Evaluation Staff of the Thirty Schools Experiment, is in charge of work in the sciences and studies of comprehensive examinations; Earl J. Johnson, of the University of Chicago, is in charge of work in the social sciences. In addition to the foregoing who compose the full-time major staff, the following persons will give part of their time to this work: Kenneth L. Heaton, director of the Cooperative Bureau for Educational Research, Michigan, will be available for some assistance on general curriculum problems; Harold B. Dunkel, examiner in the humanities at the University of Chicago, will assist in the study of problems in English and the foreign languages; Walker H. Hill, General Education Board fellow,

will make a study of the ways in which college students think and also the ways in which they develop their own philosophy of life. The staff also includes the following research assistants: Benjamin S. Bloom, Alice L. Crist, and Lily Detchen. The colleges included in this project are: Allegheny College, Meadville, Pennsylvania; Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio; Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana; Bethany College, Bethany, West Virginia; University of Denver, Denver, Colorado; Hendrix College, Conway, Arkansas; Hiram College, Hiram, Ohio; Hope College, Holland, Michigan; Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa; Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock, Arkansas; University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky; Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan; Mills College, Mills College, California; Northwest State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri; Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio; Olivet College, Olivet, Michigan; Park College, Parkville, Missouri; Pasadena Junior College, Pasadena, California; College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, Minnesota; Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri; Talladega College, Talladega, Alabama; and College of Wooster, Wooster, Ohio.

between businessman and businessman. They must rest also on contacts between teacher and teacher; between student and student; upon the confluence of streams of thought as well as upon more formalized governmental action and constructive business activity." In order to make it possible for the government to cooperate in the achievement of those purposes the Division of Cultural Relations was established in the Department of State on July 27, 1938. Although the work of the Division embraces all nations with which the United States maintains relations, its principal activities during the present time are concerned with the other American republics.

The Division's primary function is to serve as a coordinating agency and a clearinghouse for public and private institutions, organizations, and associations concerned with international activities of a cultural nature. Indirectly it serves the public schools of the United States in many ways. The Division acts as a channel through which flows information concerning the international activities and services of the United States Office of Education, the Pan-American Union, the National Education Association, the Institute of International Education, and other educational institutions and organizations. From the Department's diplomatic missions and consular offices in each of the other American republics comes similar information regarding educational developments and experiments conducted in those countries. Thousands of young men and women in the United States correspond with high school boys and girls in the other Americas. Many write the Department seeking information as to how correspondence

Division of Cultural Relations Serves the Public Schools. Speaking before more than 600 prominent educators gathered in Washington to attend a Conference on Inter-American Relations in the Field of Education, Secretary of State Cordell Hull recently declared: "The relations among nations must not rest merely on contacts between diplomat and diplomat, political leader and political leader, or even

exchanges may be effected. Similar letters come from students of schools in the southern republics named after the United States or its prominent citizens. They wish to correspond with high school boys and girls in this country. In cooperation with the American National Red Cross, the Pan-American Good Neighbor Forum of Chicago, and the National Bureau of International Educational Correspondence, the Division undertakes to aid in establishing effective contacts among students of many countries.

As a result of a series of conferences on inter-American cultural relations held in Washington this fall under the auspices of the Department of State a continuing committee composed of primary and secondary school administrators and teachers has been established to initiate surveys of curriculum materials for Latin-American studies and other activities which have been carried out in the public schools of the United States. This committee will cooperate with the Department of State and its findings will be widely disseminated in the public schools.

A Workshop in Supervision. During both terms of the summer session at the University of Georgia opportunity will be provided individuals to work on various aspects of the supervision of instruction. Supervisory and instructional problems which confront county superintendents, superintendents of independent systems, supervisors, principals, and teachers will be given special consideration. Special facilities will be made available for groups from local systems to work as units on their own problems. The workshop will be under the direction

of Dr. Floyd Jordan; however, the entire staff of the College of Education will be available as consultants. Approximately seventy-five individuals can be accommodated each quarter. Upon request the Dean will send a representative from the College of Education to visit the school system wishing to attend the workshop so that suitable working conditions may be provided for the group in advance. Groups working in the workshop may also secure the advisory services of members of the College of Education staff next school year in initiating and carrying on the plans which are developed in the workshop.

Committee Surveys Curriculum Laboratories and Workshops. The Committee on Curriculum Laboratories and Workshops of the Society for Curriculum Study has completed a survey of curriculum laboratories and workshops. The purpose of the study was to find better ways of organizing, developing, and utilizing these establishments. A questionnaire which was sent to a selected group of people associated with curriculum workshops and laboratories was designed to secure information about the establishment and operation of laboratories, personnel, budget, types of services, inventory of materials, strengths and weaknesses, and future program. The results of this survey were discussed at the annual meeting of the Society in St. Louis. The committee included the following members: Fred C. Ayer, University of Texas; Alvin C. Eurich, Stanford University; Wilhelmina Hill, University of Denver; Hugh B. Wood, University of Oregon; Edwin C. Mogenroth, Junior High School, Pasadena,

California; and H. B. Bruner, Teachers College, Columbia University, Chairman.

Pacific Northwest Resources Workshop. During the summer of 1940, the Pacific Northwest Resources Workshop will be held in two centers: one at the University of Washington, the other at Reed College, Portland. This workshop will have a subject matter faculty of experts on natural resources of the region including soil, water, minerals, forestry, fisheries, power, and industry. Also there will be an educational faculty composed of curriculum experts. The entire workshop program in both Seattle and Portland will be under the general direction of W. Virgil Smith, Assistant Superintendent of Seattle Public Schools; work at the University of Washington center will be in charge of codirector Dr. Edgar Draper. The Northwest Regional Council, recently established to assist in the study and dissemination of accurate information upon regional problems, is assisting in the over-all organization and promotion. Financial assistance to the program is being made available through the Commission on Resources and Education. Special effort will be made to attract teachers who have some background and who have already gained some experience in the practical use of resources materials in the classroom.

Field Courses in American Problems. There is a growing awareness that in the teaching of the social sciences the classroom and the book must be vivified by observation and interpretation in the field. One of the agencies

which has lately turned its attention to the problem is The Open Road—a nonprofit membership organization which has as its object the promotion of international and interregional understanding. For fifteen years The Open Road has been helping Americans to travel abroad observantly. In that period it has operated approximately four hundred field trips, independently and in conjunction with colleges and universities. During the past year, The Open Road has initiated a program in the United States which aims to acquaint Americans with their own country—not its tourist sights, but the lives and problems of its people. Social science departments in leading institutions are being offered expert and complete facilities in the conducting of field trips.

The program for 1940 is principally a project in teacher education on the graduate level. Summer courses have been worked out with five institutions as follows: *Teachers College, Columbia University*—A Sociological Field Course in Southern Conditions. This course was given with signal success in the summer of 1939. *Graduate School of Education, Harvard University*—A Workshop in Social and Economic Factors Influencing Education in New England. *School of Education, Northwestern University*—Problems of American Youth as Exemplified in Certain Urban and Rural Communities of the Middle West. *Colorado State College of Education*—Life Problems on the Great Plains and in the Rocky Mountain Area. *School of Education, New York University*—Field Seminar in the Sociology of the Tennessee Valley Region.

Enrollment is limited in each case to between twelve and fifteen qualified

students. Fees are very moderate, being based on actual costs in the field, with no charge for overhead. Inquiries regarding these courses may be addressed to the institutions or to The Open Road, 8 West Fortieth Street, New York City.

The Role of Science in General Education. The National Committee on Science Teaching, including fourteen leaders in science education, is making a study of the place of science in general education. The project is being sponsored by the Department of Science Instruction of the National Education Association, but eleven other science groups are cooperating in the work. A number of subcommittees are at work on various phases of the project. Nathan J. Neal of Rhodes School, Cleveland, Ohio, is the head of a group which is working on the basic point of view underlying science education. Ellsworth S. Obourn, John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri, has prepared a prospectus which attempts to classify the problems teachers have in handling science materials. The functional outcomes and social values of science are being studied by William C. Croxton of State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota, by means of questionnaires. Carleton E. Preston, University of North Carolina, is working on the evaluation of the results of science teaching. The administration of the science program is being studied by the subcommittee under the direction of Ira C. Davis, University High School, Madison, Wisconsin. The program of teacher training is being developed by a group, the head of which is S. Ralph Powers of Teachers College. This committee in-

vites correspondence of interested persons. A meeting of the national committee was held in St. Louis at the Jefferson Hotel on February 22, 1940. Mildred Fahy of the Peirce School, Chicago, Illinois, is President of the Department of Science Instruction of the National Education Association, which is the sponsoring organization.

Curriculum Study Groups for Teachers. Elon College is cooperating with the public schools of Alamance County in conducting study groups for teachers. The study groups grew out of the program of in-service training and investigation of local resources for education, which has been going on for several years. It became clear not only that teachers wished to develop the curriculum in relation to their immediate resources and problems, but also needed to have experiences in handling tools and materials and in building classroom programs. Study groups were arranged for arts and crafts. Social studies, sciences, and drama are large school enterprises. About three-quarters of the teachers of the county voluntarily entered one group or more. The studies are not for credit, but are merely a phase of the program for improvement of instruction and curriculum in the county. So many teachers enrolled that one study which had been planned in child development and guidance had to be postponed until next year.

The majority of the elementary teachers entered the arts crafts group. This represents, of course, a change in methods and materials for the elementary grades—and the county is now furnishing the best materials available for the teachers who are willing to

find out how to use them. The drama or large school enterprise group is also a large group, including some principals and English teachers, who are studying out the problems of engaging the whole school and all its tools or resources in some large programs which give the school and education meaning and unity.

The social studies and sciences groups are continuations of groups which have been working in previous years. The groups have not only been collecting source materials, but have been working out programs in these fields in their schools and coming together to share ideas on teaching methods. In this way the study groups represent an attempt to solve the immediate problems of education in each school of the county. When the teachers are ready to make advances then the curriculum and the methods of teaching will also advance. No amount of philosophy or formulation of ideas will produce the same result. Professor George Beecher of the Department of Education of Elon College heads up the program.

Teachers Are Kept Informed of Current Source Materials. Each week all Minneapolis senior high school teachers receive an annotated list of maps, graphs, and charts which appear in current numbers of magazines and newspapers. Each item is classified by a topic familiar to the teacher. A recent mimeographed bulletin of two pages also includes cartoons, drawings, diagrams, tables, outlines, and pictures. The local administrative officers report that this service has been a helpful guide to busy teachers and school librarians.

Notes from the State of Washington. Chelan County, under the presidency of John Rutherford, Principal of the Lincoln School, Wenatchee, is sponsoring a program of curriculum study. . . . The Central Washington Curriculum Committee recently held a luncheon meeting at Yakima during the Regional Institute which is held annually. . . . The commercial teachers of King, Kitsap, Island, and Snohomish Counties met at the Meany Hotel in Seattle to discuss the problems of commercial education. . . . The Northwest Regional Curriculum Study Group is reorganizing under the guidance of Dr. Paul R. Grim of the Western Washington College of Education. The first meeting under his leadership was held January 13 at the Bellingham High School.

The Curriculum for the Non-College Student. A group of committees in the State of Pennsylvania have been studying the curriculum for the non-college student. The University of Pennsylvania, the University of Pittsburgh, and Pennsylvania State College have set up a service center for the high schools in their sections of the state. The universities, the high school principals, and the State Department of Public Instruction are cooperating in setting up a workshop for 125 selected teachers and principals who will work intensively on the problem for six weeks next summer. Oscar Graner, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, is chairman of the state committee.

Ernest Horn Honored. The elementary school of Colorado State College of Education will hereafter be known as the Ernest Horn Elementary School, in honor of Dr. Ernest Horn of Iowa

State University, regarded as the foremost specialist in elementary education and a member of the faculty at Greeley thirty years ago. The change in name will be adopted at once, and formal ceremonies will take place as a part of the college Golden Anniversary celebration this summer and at a time when Dr. Horn can be present.

Selection of the name was made by vote of members of the faculty who at one time or another spent most of their teaching time in the elementary school for a period of three years or more. Fourteen participated. The selection was influenced by a desire to name the school for a person nationally known for his work in elementary education and that he be now living. Dr. Horn taught in the elementary school at Colorado State College of Education in 1910 and 1911. He was listed as "Training Teacher, grammar grades, and Professor of General Methods." He supervised the teaching of history in the fifth and six grades, taught a methods class in the college, and had charge of physical education in high school and playground work in the elementary school.

Brief Items. E. B. Robert, Professor of Education since 1935 and Curriculum Consultant for the State Department of Education, has been made Dean of the School of Education of Louisiana State University. He will succeed Dean Clarence A. Ives, who will retire on June 30, 1940. . . . A special survey of teacher education at Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pennsylvania, is being carried on by J. Harold Goldthorpe, C. S. Marsh, and Dr. McGrath, all of the staff of the American Council on Education. . . . Under the auspices of the

American Council on Education, the Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, will be studied by a commission consisting of Chancellor Capen, Raymond A. Kent, Frank L. McVey, C. S. Marsh, and Shelton Phelps. Earl J. McGrath, specialist in higher education on the Council's staff, is acting as executive secretary. . . . Beginning February 1, 1940, J. Wayne Wrightstone leaves his position as Associate Director of the Evaluation of School Broadcasts, Ohio State University, to become Assistant Director of the Bureau of Reference, Research and Statistics, of the New York City Public Schools. . . . The students of the Advanced School of Education of Teachers College publish a magazine every six weeks during the school year which includes articles on research, reviews of research, news of the activities of the Advanced School and summaries of dissertations. The editorial board is anxious to secure the subscriptions of alumni at one dollar per year. . . . H. L. Caswell of Teachers College, Columbia University, recently addressed the Cincinnati Council for Childhood Education and the Upper Grade Study Council on the topic, "Developing a Curriculum to Perpetuate and Improve Democracy." . . . Ernest E. Brown has recently become the Director of Curriculum Research in the Oklahoma State Department of Education. . . . William H. Bristow, formerly Dean of Instruction at State Teachers College, Shippensburg, Pennsylvania, became Assistant Director of the Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics of the New York City Public Schools on February 1, 1940, to have charge of the Curriculum Division of that Bureau.

RESEARCH IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT¹

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WHAT is often described as "curriculum research" is nothing more than intelligent curriculum practice. Such a concept is about as precise and helpful as saying that research consists of formulating plans, putting them into effect and revising them as circumstances indicate the need. Intelligent professional practice in curriculum development, or in any other field, depends upon and engages in research at many points, but research and the total process are not one and the same any more than determining the strength of materials and building a bridge are one and the same.

Curriculum development has long since outgrown the idea that the curriculum is a collection of written courses of study in conventional subjects, broad fields or even in "core" activities, however scientifically prepared and tested. The writing of courses of study is but one part of the whole enterprise of curricular development, and a process that represents not the end, but rather only an intermediate and shifting point in the whole enterprise. Actually, the curriculum is what the teachers do with, to, or for pupils. Consequently curriculum development includes the teaching as well as the subject to be taught, the supervision of teaching as well as service in the provision of materials of instruction. Inquiry concerning the problems and methods of research in curriculum development must, therefore, be widened, and car-

ried forward with a different orientation than that suggested by most treatises on the subject.

The Nature of Research in Curriculum Development. In general, any research that answers broadly important questions or solves broadly significant problems relating to ways and means of managing instruction is research in the field of curriculum development. An investigation of the relative merits of a unified and a compartmentalized curriculum as situations in which to develop purposeful experience is curriculum research; so is an investigation of the relative merits of adding columns of figures up and adding them down. A critical analysis and appraisal of social processes as controlling concepts in curriculum designing; an investigation of the historical antecedents of the current emphasis on general education; a study of the effects of an organized program of curriculum development on the professional growth of teachers; a study of the relative difficulty of meaning of selected words for children of given ages; an inquiry into the genesis and development of children's interest patterns under stated educational regimes; an investigation of the effect of stated instructional regimes on the stability of young people's vocational choices; all these are research in the field of curriculum development. Whether a research study is to be regarded as pertaining to the curriculum or to some other field often depends more on the orientation or affiliation of the person making the

¹Substantial portions of this paper appeared in the Advanced School Digest for January, 1940, and are used by permission of the editors.

study than on the nature of the study itself. Many studies labeled research in educational psychology, history of education, teaching of social science (or any other subject), elementary or secondary education, supervision and the like might be just as accurately labeled studies in curriculum because they deal directly and closely with the managing of instruction — organization, processes, materials, or effects.

Some students of education seem to think of the curriculum as meaning only the *total* curriculum and of curriculum research as dealing chiefly with questions of interrelationships among the parts. This is too narrow a conception. Curriculum does mean the total curriculum, to be sure, and interrelationships among parts (or possible parts) give rise to many important and difficult problems. Currently, the problem of developing a satisfactory design, or formulating a valid organizing principle to tie all the parts together into an organic whole, is one of the most difficult that confronts workers in the field of curriculum development. The fact that educational philosophers, historians, sociologists, and specialists in the teaching of one or another subject are studying this problem does not make it any less a problem in the field of curriculum development. Any person who studies such a problem intensively, brings to bear on it penetrating insight and broad scholarship, and tries to find a solution that is cogent, and universal in its significance, is doing curriculum research whether he thinks so or not. At the same time, a person who studies the problem of scope, sequence, and methodology in one or another subject field is also doing curriculum research whether he thinks of himself as a curriculum worker or not.

Methods of Research in Curriculum Development. The methods of research to be employed in curriculum development, like those in every other field, depend upon the nature of the problems being investigated and upon the kind of data with which the investigator must work. There are no unique or special methods of curriculum research, and it is not a necessary condition of research in curriculum development (or, for that matter, in any other field) that the data be treated statistically or the study reported in mathematical terms. Statistics is a mode of discourse, not a method of research. Many curriculum problems, to be investigated advantageously, require a procedure or design for study that involves statistical analysis and relating of data, but the important consideration always is the conclusions and generalizations that may be based thereon. Collecting facts and analyzing and relating them in statistical language is not in itself research. "The ultimate goal of science is the formulation of valid generalizations in the form of verified suppositions, explanatory principles or scientific laws."² Any procedure that permits this is research. If the "verified suppositions, explanatory principles or scientific laws" relate to the managing of instruction, the research is in the field of curriculum development.

Methods of research are about as numerous and varied as the persons who propose them, and it seems reasonable to expect that still other methods will be proposed as intelligent inquiry suggests leads that may be fol-

²Quoted from Good, Carter V., Barr, A. S., and Stacey, Douglas E. *The Methodology of Educational Research*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1938. Page 23.

lowed out more fully in subsequent inquiry. Suffice it here to consider briefly some of the methods that have been used extensively and found to be promising as modes of inquiry into curriculum problems.

Controlled Experimentation. It is sometimes assumed that experimentation, which seeks to ascertain the amount and nature of difference induced by arbitrary control of a single factor, under laboratory or field conditions, is the method of research. In view of the fact that experimentation has resulted in a considerable body of very equivocal findings about educational matters, some have doubted whether the experimental method can be adapted usefully to educational research. Hazards in experimentation are legion and arise from many sources—from difficulty of controlling non-experimental factors; from difficulties of specifying, isolating, and controlling the experimental factor under artificial conditions; from difficulties of discovering whether a factor operates alone or in conjunction with other factors, and how; from difficulty of ascertaining whether observed changes are due to an alleged factor or to any one of perhaps a dozen others. Verification of findings is difficult because educational experiments can seldom be repeated under anything like similar conditions, largely because laws, customs, and circumstances prevent the rigid controls that are necessary. Consequently, it seems to many that it is hardly probable that sufficient improvement of techniques can be brought about to permit thoroughly scientific study of the broader and more difficult problems in the field of curriculum development. But even though these hazards and limitations be rec-

ognized, it is hardly necessary to abandon experimentation completely. A more thorough study of what others have done and greater care to avoid or profit from the mistakes of others, greater care to probe more deeply where others have already scratched the surface rather than merely to scratch the same or another surface equally superficially would all help in testing the usefulness of experimentation as a mode of inquiry.

Experimentation carried on with smaller groups, more carefully selected, and with more careful planning, improved instruments of measurement and more elaborate techniques of analysis will doubtless permit greater reliance to be placed in this mode of inquiry in the future. Experimentation may well contribute to common knowledge by clarification, refinement, and better interpretation. One does not have to be the first to study a problem in order to do significant research.

Uncontrolled Experimentation or Causal-Comparative Studies. Possibly the best method of studying many important curriculum problems is the one commonly called the causal-comparative method. This method obviates the difficulty of managing complex situations and of controlling single factors because it seeks only to infer relationships from comparing circumstances associated with observed effects, or by noting factors present in instances where a given effect occurs and in instances where it does not. For example, under what type of instructional regime does one find most purposeful learning activities in progress? Under what circumstances do curriculum materials of a specified kind prove most or least useful, or

conversely, what circumstances are associated with the fact that specified curriculum source materials are or are not used? Questions of this sort may be readily investigated by the comparative method. Studies of this sort are cross-sectional in nature and reveal nothing directly about how the observed circumstances came to be, but if one has the time and interest, a series of comparative studies, together forming a sort of genetic-cross-sectional investigation, may throw considerable light on the causal significance of observed factors.

One must be cautious in making inferences that anything causes anything else, but complete denial of cause and effect relationships, while metaphysically an interesting idea, is hardly necessary in a practical world. The existence of the same factor, trait, characteristic or circumstance in a variety of situations in which a factor under investigation is known to be present would certainly suggest causal connections to the practical-minded person and a course of action based appropriately on such connections. As a matter of fact, most persons undertake research as a basis for improved practice and inevitably postulate causal connections whether they exist in fact or not.

Case Studies and Genetic Studies. The case study technique is a useful method of investigation of many problems in the field of curriculum development. In some persons' minds, the case study has to do with comprehensive records of individuals, but it is unnecessary to limit it to individuals. Groups that have any real organic unity are also amenable to case study of an organic group, such as a classroom group at work with a teach-

er, may throw more light on educational problems and theories than can be obtained in any other way. One must, of course, be conservative in making generalizations based upon case studies. No case is ever quite like another and no single investigation will support generalizations of wider application than the case group itself. However, the accumulation of detailed, accurate, and carefully recorded data obtained in numerous case records enables one later on to make comparative or normative studies that may support quite broad and useful generalizations.

Many curriculum problems remain baffling because they must be studied longitudinally rather than latitudinally. In many pertinent areas, such, for example, as the development of interests and other aspects of personality, it is at present necessary to infer what is true of the individual from a series of cross-sectional or normative studies of groups, a very questionable procedure. It is of no particular value to know what the interests or problems of a group of twelve-year-olds are at the moment, or what the interests and problems of any particular twelve-year-old are unless one has some knowledge of how they came to be what they are and what they suggest for the future. This requirement cannot be met by inference from data based upon cross-sectional studies of eleven-year-olds, ten-year-olds, and nine-year-olds. The needed information can be obtained only from genetic studies which are even more difficult to manage than experimental studies. Several of the curriculum projects reported in recent years by experimental schools are in substantial measure genetic studies and have been very helpful in testing the usefulness and validity of widely held

curriculum theories. Here again, one must be cautious in drawing conclusions, for no genetic study will support generalizations of broader application than the case group studied. Nevertheless, genetic studies are the only means of investigating curriculum practices in those areas where consequences are known or suspected to be functions of developmental sequence as well as functions of developmental status. It seems unlikely that any very helpful information on the nature of children's interests, for example, will be forthcoming until opportunities are found for studying them genetically. It is common knowledge that normative surveys or cross-sectional studies of interests have been rather fruitless.

"Unscientific" Methods of Research. The foregoing methods of research are usually referred to as "scientific" in that they make new appeals to experience through systematic controlled or uncontrolled observation. However, many of the most important issues in the field of curriculum development at the present time require not appeals to new experience, but better analysis and appraisal of present and past experience. Many current and widely held assumptions and hypotheses are of questionable validity because they have not been subjected to rigorous and critical analysis in the light of already existing data. For example, how valid is the social functions approach to curriculum designing as compared with other controlling ideas? What difference does it make

in the indicated experiences of children? And, nobody seems to have examined dispassionately in terms of all the pertinent facts the "emerging" curriculum in comparison with the pre-planned curriculum in relation to the central question of what difference either makes in the individual's own relevance and continuity of experience. Inquiries of this sort are often labeled philosophical and therefore unscientific, but that does not make them any the less important as research.

Conclusion. In the final analysis, it is of little moment whether methods of research are classified as historical, philosophical, or scientific, or whether as experimental, causal-comparative, normative survey, case study or genetic; whether the field of curriculum development is defined as comprising a restricted and special body of activities, purposes and functions or whether it is thought of broadly and inclusively. The important thing for the research worker to do is to identify problems, the solutions of which would make an important difference in educational policy or practice and to proceed to solve these problems by the most rigorous methods of inquiry that can be devised. If the solution of the problem would make an important difference in the way instruction should be managed, the research is in the field of the curriculum, even though the data be drawn conceivably from the whole range of human knowledge and the "method" conceivably one invented to fit a particular investigation.

BUILDING A RURAL COMMUNITY

By EUGENE SMATHERS
Pestor, Big Lick Church, Big Lick, Tennessee

BIG LICK community is located in Cumberland County, one of the several counties on the Northwestern Cumberland Plateau. This plateau is a tableland averaging forty miles in width and extending from northeastern Kentucky into northern Alabama, a distance of more than 300 miles. It ranges from 1,000 to 2,000 feet above sea level, but at some of the highest points one hardly realizes that he is in the mountains as the land is rolling and no high hills are to be seen. The heart of the Plateau is in Tennessee and Cumberland is near the center of the region, and in most respects typical of the whole. It is one of the largest counties in size. In 1930, there was a population of 10,000, sixty-six per cent of which resided on the land. There has been a rapid increase in population during the past ten years, so that today even a larger portion of our folk reside on the land.

Big Lick is a community of fifty-odd families, within a three-mile radius, with a population of around 300. In many respects it is one of the better rural communities in Cumberland County. The land is rolling, and while not fertile, it does respond to good farming practices and can be built up over a period of a few years. It is deficient in lime and phosphate, requiring the application of these two elements before better results are obtained. The majority of the families have carved their little farms out of the wilderness. We are in a period of transition of what might be called a "timber economy" to a farming econ-

omy, and as yet the small cash income that was lost with the passing of the timber has not been completely regained by the marketing of farm products. The economic situation of our families, while better than some other sections of the Plateau, is tragic. There was a time at the beginning of the depression when the average cash income did not exceed \$50.00 per year. For many the depression years with their resulting relief brought the largest cash income ever experienced. This speaks for itself to anyone who knows the level of W.P.A. wages here in the South. As will be pointed out later, our basic problem is economic.

Until fifteen years ago Big Lick was isolated for several months each year, the roads being impassable. During the months when the roads were passable, it was a hard day's journey to Crossville, the county seat, and only town in the county, fourteen miles away. Today we are two miles from a good highway and the main county road to the highway is good, according to our standards. Many of the back roads are still very poor. Until two years ago there was no telephone in the community. We have daily mail and a few cars and radios. No longer are we isolated. A proposed new highway, north and south, runs through the center of the community, and when built will bring its advantages and problems.

Our problems are typical of most plateau communities, and many of them can be traced to the fact that we are a "disadvantaged" folk eco-

nomically. Folk with such limited or nonexistent incomes cannot provide for themselves even the necessities for a decent living, nor can they support the institutions which are so essential for better community life. In 1930, the average rural dwelling was valued at \$250-\$500. Until recent years, our educational situation was tragically inadequate, and while there has been a rapid improvement with the coming of federal and state aid, we still have far to go. Cultural opportunities are few. The majority of the homes do not have books or magazines. Even when these are made available, due to the former lack, the reading level is very low.

One of the most pressing problems is that of health and medical care. Due to poor housing, lack in quality when not in quantity of food, and other causes, there has been an unusual amount of sickness. In fact, I am led to believe that much of what is known as "laziness" in our section is really "sickness." And the cost of medical care is prohibitive. One visit from the doctor costs from \$10.00 to \$15.00, which must be paid in cash or secured by a mortgage. I have known families who had to sell their only cow to pay a doctor bill or even mortgage their little bit of land. This cost leads a family to wait until it is too late for medical care to do any good and yet the members have to struggle for months to pay the bill.

Another problem growing out of our economic situation is that of the migration of our youth. Without the intelligence and energy of some of our best youth we are sorely handicapped in our effort to lift the level of our community life. Yet due to lack of present opportunity, we so often lose

our best and have to struggle on with those of lesser abilities.

And there are other problems which cannot be so easily traced to economic causes. Many of them arise in the realm of attitudes. I can only list some of them here: a sense of defeat, indifference, self-satisfaction, and satisfaction with present condition, individualism that prevents or hinders cooperation, tenacity of tradition and custom, resistance to new ideas, a "know-it-all-ness" that discredits the aid of experts, a sentimental religion divorced from life. There are many other problems, but I hope this will afford a background concerning the situation in which I work.

We made a feeble beginning with a recreational program. There was much prejudice and opposition to overcome. But we moved slowly and have been able to make many gains during the five years. We have depended chiefly upon folk games and dances for many hours of joyous and wholesome fun. While this program is far from being what we hope some day it will be, I feel that it has been one of our best contributions not only to this community, but to the whole region. Our "socials" are both famous and infamous, depending upon the group or person making the judgment. Our severest critics are among those who bemoan the fact that youth are going to "hell" via the roadhouse. One who has not tried to promote some sort of recreational program in a similar situation in the mountains cannot fully appreciate the sense of achievement which is ours. And we have also discovered that the most joyful and creative fun can be of one's own making—that even folk with low incomes can find some joy and that without paying

profits to commercial amusements. Seeking to bring joy and gaiety into drab and dull surroundings will always be an important element in our program.

Our next major undertaking was the development of a health program which would in some measure at least meet our tragic situation. I have mentioned the prohibitive costs of medical care. But the actual situation could not be described—it had to be experienced. We were determined to do something to remedy this situation. So with the financial aid of a friend, we began in October, 1937, the construction of a House of Health. The community contributed over \$1,400 in labor and materials. It was a long, hard task, but we persisted and the building was dedicated in June, 1938, as the Warren H. Wilson House of Health. It is both residence for the nurse and center for our health program. The medical unit is well equipped. As the building neared completion, we were faced with the task of securing a suitable nurse. It was very difficult to find a capable nurse who would come to live in a relatively isolated community on the salary which we could pay. After much searching, we were able to secure the services of a capable young woman, graduate of the Berea College Hospital, and with a background which would fit her for the task here. So our health program was under way. We hoped that the educational and remedial work of a nurse would prepare us for still further advance with some sort of medical cooperative. We had hoped in the beginning to have the cooperation of some of the Crossville doctors. And two of the best did work along with us until the ma-

jority of the county medical association turned thumbs down and these had to cease. These were dark days for us, but the greathearted doctors at Uplands Sanatorium came to our rescue, and we were able to plan for two clinics each month. The Mother and Baby Clinic is free to all expectant mothers and to mothers with children of preschool age. Before our nurse will care for a mother during childbirth she must attend this clinic. There is a small fee for the General Clinic, at which anyone wishing the advice of the doctor may secure it. The chief emphasis of our program has been preventive. Hundreds have been inoculated. Home hygiene and first-aid classes have been held. Much assistance has been given in the homes. While it is far from completely meeting the situation, our folk say that they do not see how we got along before.

We hope some day to grow into a medical cooperative. But we must have a larger number of families than now reside in the five communities which we serve, and the incomes of these families must be above that received at present. In the spring of this year, 1939, we thought we had an opportunity to far more adequately meet our health situation when we made plans to settle a refugee doctor at the House of Health. We could have provided a living until some plan had been worked out. We had contact with some suitable doctors. But a ruling of the Tennessee Board of Medical Examiners that no doctor who was not a graduate of an American medical college could practice in this state knocked our hopes and plans into a cocked hat. We still have a faint hope that this dictatorial ruling may

be broken, but it grows dimmer every day. So again we have been balked by a head-on with the A.M.A.

Through the years I had been concerned with the economic situation of our community and we had tried several things without great success. In the winter of 1938 we discovered, with the help of Ellsworth Smith, a technique which promised definite results. This technique had worked with marked success in Nova Scotia and we felt it would work here. The idea was presented to a community meeting and there was good response. Two study clubs, meeting on each Wednesday evening in the homes of the members, were started. Each group elected its own leader from among its own number and selected a subject or subjects for study. The subjects grew out of their "bread-and-butter" needs. One group selected as its subject "cooperative buying of farm supplies" and the other "cattle." Once each month we had a combined meeting when each group reported its problems and conclusions. Out of this group study there came two practical results of much promise to the economic improvement of the community, as well as a sense of our ability to do something about our needs and the growth of individual members. Several of our farmers mixed their fertilizer at home with considerable savings. As fertilizer is a necessity, any help here is valuable. To meet the need for better equipment, tools which no individual farmer could afford to own, yet all needed, we organized a Farmers Association. This cooperative would enable us to pool our limited resources for the purchase of some of these tools. We now own a grain drill, a tooth harrow, and a

corn planter. This small beginning has great possibilities.

We are continuing this study this winter and already the group is working on plans for the building of a co-operative dipping vat for stock. We also plan to study the possibilities of growing small quantities of vegetables for market in a near-by city, thus adding a bit to our cash income. We also plan to study credit unions, as we are already aware of the need for such an organization as a means of accumulating capital for projects of improvement.

As we look toward the future we have plans for other developments which we believe will contribute to a more abundant community life. Some of these plans are in the process of realization now, others may be years. As an aid in the development of our recreational program we are planning a pavilion which will provide us with larger space for our singing games during the summer months, also a more suitable place for dramatics and certain other recreations. We hope to secure a motion picture projector in the near future. Few of our folk ever attend a movie, yet all enjoy pictures very much. We feel that a projector offers many educational and recreational opportunities. We have a playground in the process of development.

One of our most important plans, also in process of development, is a project looking toward land settlement. We are surrounded by undeveloped land which is capable of being developed into farms. At present we are handicapped by the limited number of families in the community; more families would have a better chance to improve the economic situation. At present Big Lick cannot grow because

it is surrounded by this land which is owned by large companies who will not sell small tracts. At the same time we have young people of ability and energy who have little opportunity here or elsewhere. If a moment of prosperity should come, we would lose the best of these youth. We believe that a small experiment with land settlement would make some contribution to the solutions of the above problems. So we are seeking to purchase some of this undeveloped land and open it for settlement by our own youth or by other families who can make a contribution to our community. All the details yet remain to be worked out, and we have to secure the land, but we believe we may be able to do something which will not only be of value to us, but also to other rural communities and agencies.

As our farms are small and our families large, it is not necessary that all the time be spent working on the land. We are, therefore, seeking some sort of home or community industry or craft which will provide an op-

portunity for converting this spare time into a better living. We plan a workshop in the near future. We have our own power plant which will help us in the above development. We have dreams of a community saw-mill and feed mill, of a cooperative store, craft shop, roadside market, and tourist camp. These last three are dependent upon the proposed highway which runs through the community.

I have given a sketchy picture of some of our major problems, achievements, and plans. Many other things could be said. I am far from satisfied and sometimes get very discouraged. The problems of our little community are so tangled with the problems of the nation and world that our puny efforts often seem futile. But little successes and the sense of fellowship with others of like mind who in other situations are working at the task of bringing more abundant life to the "disadvantaged" carries me over periods of despair and I find myself tackling the "impossible" again.



TWO APPROACHES TO HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM REVISION

By WILLIAM R. ODELL
Oakland (California) Public Schools

THE LONGER ONE studies the various plans now proposed for curriculum revision on the senior high school level, the clearer becomes the conviction that there are two basic approaches possible and that these two are tremendously different in their potentialities for bringing significant improvements in the program of that school unit. It is hardly necessary to point out that any attempt to divide curriculum plans or anything else into only two groups results in an oversimplification. This is justified, however, if the resulting categories make clearer a fundamental difference between two philosophies. That is the intent at least of the present classification and its only purpose.

The first approach may be called the subject-matter approach. The central idea behind this plan of curriculum revision requires starting with a preconceived idea of content that is to be covered. This approach is basic to many of the curriculum reorganization schemes now advocated or in operation all over the country. It is the approach not only of the traditional subject-matter fields organization of the high school program, but also of Harold Rugg's social studies program, the so-called broad fields program proposed among others by Featherstone¹ and already in operation in colleges especially, the Virginia and other "scope and sequence" plans proposed by Hanna et al., some of the Denver

and Los Angeles "core program" plans, and still other plans that will readily come to the reader's mind. Each of these plans very clearly takes its point of departure from some body of subject-matter or marked-out-in-advance content-areas or topics. The only real difference between these various schemes lies in the basis upon which the case for the proposed subject matter is built. Thus the subject-matter fields plan is based upon tradition. Harold Rugg's program is largely or wholly based upon what "frontier thinkers" believe to be important problems. Featherstone's broad fields represent what some people believe, more or less subjectively, to be the several broad significant areas of concern to us in our modern world. The "Virginia plan" likewise presents as a curriculum framework several topics that another group more or less subjectively determined to be the important problems of today. As the final example of this subject-matter approach, the "core program" idea was developed in certain high schools through committees variously constituted to assay either the whole school offering or selected subjects to determine what content has universal value for all students.

The second approach has not been widely used and, relatively, scarcely at all in public high schools. It is the approach made from the individual-needs or group-needs basis. Its fundamental hypothesis is that an individual or a group has needs that are to be

¹Featherstone, W. B. *The Place of Subjects in an Integrated Curriculum*. California Quarterly of Secondary Education, 1933-34.

ministered to by the school. Proceeding by this concept, the teacher would feel as free to venture into one area as another. There would be no restriction of "sticking to the subject" such as is inescapably imposed by any one of the subject-matter approaches mentioned above.

As stated, this plan is seldom used, perhaps regularly only in the nursery school and the early pre-primary and primary years, and on infrequent occasion by other teachers in the upper school levels. Even the Ethical Culture High School plan does not fall within this classification since the student modifies a given subject matter, such as chemistry or mathematics, to fit his supposed ultimate vocational interest.² Similarly, other schemes known to the writer represent at best only compromises between the two approaches. The already mentioned basic unsatisfactoriness of dividing all schemes into the two groups is at this point most apparent.

In order to make clearer what this second approach implies, four examples from various high schools in Oakland will be briefly discussed. Obviously in the space available only very incomplete presentation can be made of each illustration.

The first example is the Personal Management course at University High School, which is the required core course in the low-tenth grade for all pupils. This course has as its purpose the orientating of incoming students to the school and to senior high school problems generally.³ What is signifi-

cant about this course is the way in which it was developed. Although credit in English is given for the course, the principal, Dr. George A. Rice, simply assigned a group of interested teachers from a wide variety of subject fields to plan a one-semester offering to meet the needs of the incoming group of L-10 students. Other than to discuss in a general way what those needs are, the teachers were not given any statement of the content of the course. They were made responsible for meeting together as a group each week to discuss mutual problems, but each teacher was allowed utmost freedom to do as he wished in his own classes. At no time was an attempt made to select out of English or any of the subject fields the minimum content appropriate for all students. In no way, in short, was a preconceived subject-matter content allowed to come into the plan. The entire emphasis was upon individual and group needs of L-10 students as teachers confront them in their classes.

The second example also is taken from University High School. At that school courses called Leisure Activities and Special Interests are offered. In the first of these students enroll in order to develop recreational skills such as badminton, cribbage, photography, etc. This course provides additional opportunity over that available in physical education classes for students who are chiefly non-college preparatory and who have ordinarily made poor adjustment to the senior high school. Through the Special Interests class students may make arrangements to work on any special projects in which they are interested. This ordinarily involves arrangements between the Special Interests teacher

²Thayer, V. T. *Secondary Education as Orientation*. Everett, Samuel, and Others—A Challenge to Secondary Education. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1935.

³Those interested in a more detailed description of the core program at University High School see: *University High School Journal*, April, 1937. Oakland, California: Grove Street at Fifty-Seventh Street.

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and other teachers in the school and, in general, is elected by college-preparatory students mostly during their later semesters of school. In both of these courses the approach is definitely that of individual and group needs as opposed to a subject-matter one, and no preconceived basis of appropriate content restricts the activities of the students. The projects undertaken differ rather widely from semester to semester in the Leisure Activities course and are seldom the same for any two students in the Special Interests group.

The third illustration is the course in Personal Planning that is being developed in three other Oakland High Schools—McClymonds, Roosevelt, and Castlemont. From all of these schools a very small proportion of graduates attend college, averaging probably around ten per cent over a period of years. The Personal Planning course, accordingly, was conceived to make less abrupt the break between going to school and going to work. Four teachers, two men and two women, were selected in two schools to develop the course originally. They were chosen because they all were married and had homes of their own, because they had proved themselves successful in other activities besides teaching school, and because they were interested in working on a project involving normal non-college students in a new area. Their respective fields of teaching specialization was a minor consideration. These teachers worked together full time for a month visiting schools and industrial establishments that employ unskilled workers and in surveying materials of all sorts. A tentative outline of broad problem areas was prepared which was note-

worthy chiefly because of large blank spaces left to be filled in later. The outline was based upon an analysis of the needs of H-12 students who are to quit school within four months to go to work at home or in a beginning job. At no time did anyone engaged in the project consider what content from any traditional field should be included. And, more convincing still, is the fact that the course given each successive time by all four teachers is considerably different from their previous attempts. It, accordingly, seems certain that group and individual needs determine the content of this course rather than any one of the subject-matter approaches mentioned earlier.

The fourth and final example is too new to discuss except tentatively. It is a block-schedule plan inaugurated recently at Castlemont High School in Oakland. By this plan all incoming L-10 students—ordinarily between 300 and 400 in number—have been block-scheduled for their first three class periods. All of this number enroll in English III which is the orientation vehicle for this school, all take physical education, and for the third period all elect either science or mathematics. A minimum number of teachers is assigned to these classes, with all physical education classes except one handled by two teachers, all English classes by four teachers, and a rather large number teaching the mathematics and science classes. These teachers come together rather frequently to discuss general matters, but no attempt has been made to have them consider in any way the relationship of their various subject contents. The emphasis instead is upon having them consider the needs of their students. Two plans for this are now under way.

By the first of these, several groups of ten students who have identical block teachers are selected for study by their block teachers and counselor under the direction of the Dean of boys and girls. At these conferences all available junior high school record data are examined and current impressions are discussed. The second plan for trying to discover group and individual needs was designed simply to furnish more complete data about all L-10 students. A battery of tests is being given to all the L-10 group. These include not only achievement tests in most subject areas, but aptitude tests and newer type of evaluation instruments and scales as well. Such a plan cannot spring out full-blown in advance; it must be evolved by a group over a period of years. In spite of that, the concept behind this plan is one not of subject or content approach, but one of individual- and group-need approach.

It is the writer's experience that we can expect totally different outcomes from the two approaches. This is due to the limitation which any subject-matter approach, no matter how well founded, places upon the teacher and pupil. No such limitation is imposed upon the individual- or group-needs approach; its only limitation is the capacity of the teacher and the fetters of the administrative setup, both of which, of course, are independent of the matter of approach.

In conclusion, there are only a very few points upon which at this time one would dare be certain. It seems clear, however, that the ultimate senior high school program cannot be reached through the subject-matter curriculum approach alone, no matter how streamlined and disguised it may be. It is equally clear that the individual- or group-needs approach could not be used by itself. Some of the present high school's program is not based upon either individual or group needs determinable from an examination of students alone, but instead is based upon external factors such as college entrance requirements, vocational standards, social and civic mores, etc. It is obvious, therefore, that what we seek is a happy combination of the two approaches.

The only other point upon which one dares be certain is that the two approaches demand quite different sets of procedures and techniques. Exactly what these are for the needs approach is not at all clear. One can guess, however, that basic textbooks and courses of study are wholly inappropriate here, that teachers need time for conferences in a way they never would under the other approach, that teachers for this type of approach must be selected on the basis of a different set of criteria, that pupils will need as never before to be grouped on the basis of common needs, and that the development of a program on this basis is tremendously slow as compared with any on the other basis.

THE PLACE OF STUDY IN GENERAL EDUCATION

By PAUL R. PIERCE
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NEW CURRICULUMS CALL for change in many areas of the high school program other than materials of instruction. Previous accounts have described relating work to areas of living, developing new courses, and utilizing community materials in the core curriculum at Wells High School.¹ This article deals with related changes in the status of study, particularly as regards extra-class practices in school and home.

STUDY AND ESSENTIAL TYPES OF LEARNING

A common tendency is for teachers to apply techniques of study and instruction appropriate to one type of learning to another type, or to employ the same teaching techniques to all learning situations encountered. For practical purposes, types of learning have been grouped at Wells under two broad classifications. The first type involves learnings of general education, to which such core curriculum fields as social studies, language arts, physical education, science, and the fine and practical arts contribute. These are organized in integrated units under significant areas of living, have no minimum essentials or graded standards of achievement, and are individualized on such bases as interests, abilities, special aptitudes, and social backgrounds of pupils. The second type of learning is concerned with electives for specialization dealing mainly with skill areas and with technical and voca-

tional subjects, such as algebra, physics, mechanical drawing, and shorthand. These subjects are mainly organized in blocks of work, have minimum essentials, subject-matter continuity, and high standards of achievement, and are individualized on the bases of rate of progress and enrichment exercises.

THE PLACE OF STUDY IN GENERAL EDUCATION

The basic problem respecting study in true general education resides in the fact that the main objectives are not acquisition of formalized informations and skills, but current and future practice of effective daily living. Thus study in the English arts chiefly involves listening to worth-while radio selections, selecting and reading good books, reading newspapers with discrimination, discerningly selecting motion picture shows, and talking effectively in social and business situations; in science, viewing the world through the eyes of science, utilizing scientific as opposed to naive methods in thinking, practicing a wholesome diet, and developing sound mental health; and in social studies, practicing cooperation in school and home living, participating in enjoyable social activities, showing tolerance toward creeds and races other than one's own, and improving living in the community. The development of procedures to realize this concept of study has been a challenge to our best efforts for the past five years. The stage is set for abiding practices in living through pupil experiences in units of learning designed

¹Pierce, Paul R. "Curriculum Progress at Wells High School." *Curriculum Journal*, 10: 207-10, May, 1939.

to parallel successful democratic life outside the school. This procedure necessitates marked changes in recording study results, in evaluating study outcomes, and in guiding study carried on outside the classroom. Our recording of study results no longer consists in filling notebooks with information obtained from books or lectures, but rather in pupils' clinical notes of individual or shared learning activities, and of their own analyses of, or reactions to, such experiences. The notes are supplemented by records kept in pupil-managed files in the classrooms, both sources being used in joint pupil-teacher evaluation of study outcomes.

How study outside the classroom should be guided has been our major problem. Currently our study activities outside classes are organized as follows: (1) daily experiences of successful living, developed in cooperation with parents and community leaders; (2) experiences in the auditorium arts; (3) work in a core-field study center; and (4) study in the school library.

SUCCESSFUL LIVING EXPERIENCES AS HOMEWORK

Extra-instructional experiences in the school world form an important area of study. This whole field of informal, extra-instructional life, including clubs, service activities, social affairs, lunchroom sessions, and corridor and playfield activities teems with situations for practicing the good life, mainly under pupil responsibility and control. Making "the school" the first social area of our core curriculum has assisted us in initiating experiences of living as "homework."

The extension of the English arts into the portions of the school world described is made through use of par-

liamentary procedure in clubs and organizations, making effective floor talks in student gatherings, preparing minutes of meetings, and the like. Corresponding study activities for the social studies consists in participating effectively in school service organizations, planning and conducting civic assemblies, handling moneys for school benefits, and managing homeroom sessions. Illustrative of study experiences of science is the selection of wholesome diets in the lunchroom; of physical education, the proper use of school baths and toilets; and of music, participation in school music organizations. Such results may occur incidentally in a typical high school situation in the cases of a limited number of pupils; here these experiences are made purposeful through direct instruction in core-curriculum classes and are systematically extended to virtually the entire pupil body.

The passage from guidance of pupil experiences in school under conditions controlled by pupils and teachers to guidance of *experiences in the community* under diverse economic and social forces is long and beset with difficulties. Our early measures to extend classroom activities into the community included surveys of pupil interests and issuance of pamphlets advertising community educational facilities to parents. Recent efforts have been focused upon ways to relate class activities effectively to pupil experiences in the community. Many classes at first set aside certain periods exclusively for consideration of community activities, but most of them are now developing ability to make regular class activities the steppingstones to selective community experiences.

While many valuable pupil experiences occur spontaneously, unsponsored by an organization, our most common and effective approach has been through *organized community agencies*. First among such agencies is the home, rightful partner of the school in general education. Direct contacts with the home are maintained by both homeroom and classroom teachers, and parents' influence is enlisted in pupil utilization of other community agencies.

Though information regarding the nature and purposes of the programs of other community agencies was available to pupils, teachers, and parents, pupil use of the services offered at first was unsatisfactory. It was difficult to obtain accurate and systematic reports from pupils regarding their participation, and teachers, busy with manifold duties, found themselves handicapped in maintaining regular contacts with the numerous sponsors of various community activities. The need for closer ties between the high school and the community agencies was clearly indicated.

A series of luncheon conferences with the heads of main types of community organizations as guests of the high school was accordingly held for planning closer integration of core classrooms and community agencies. A plan was developed by which the school supplies the pupil with a card for recording the activities pursued under sponsorship of a community agency. The pupil fills out the card, the community sponsor signing as evidence that the activity has been carried out. The cards are kept on file in the classrooms. Activities are classified and given recognition according to the subject fields under which they

fall; thus library reading, dramatics, and radio and motion picture activities in the community are the responsibility of English arts; health practices, of science; dancing, of physical education; and Red Cross, forum, scout, and other youth organization activities, of social studies. Another result of this school-community planning has been that sponsors of the community activities now visit our classes in core-curriculum fields, explaining to pupils how to make their participation in community activities more effective, and planning with teachers ways to improve integration of the organization activities and classwork. Cooperation of this type was first initiated with the public parks and playgrounds, these agencies being regarded as most closely related in function and support to the public schools. It was later extended, in turn, to such groups as social agencies, medical clinics, fraternal and church organizations, and libraries and news agencies.

At first the planning of *activities for vacations* was left to conferences informally to be arranged between pupils and homeroom teachers, but observation over a period of time led us to see the need for more specific procedure in this field. A plan was accordingly developed for pupil scheduling of these activities prior to the vacation, with provision for stock-taking on return to school. A planning form is used, by which the vacation activities are classified under the areas of living which form the bases of our core-curriculum. The stock-taking takes place during one of the three twenty-minute individual conferences held by the homeroom teacher with her pupils each semester.

THE AUDITORIUM ARTS

Partially spanning the gap between the idealistically patterned experiences of the classroom and the realistic experiences of the outside world are our auditorium arts. All pupils devote at least one study period daily in their ninth and tenth years, and one-half of the study periods in their eleventh and twelfth years, to this type of study experience. The program includes motion pictures, radio, free reading, orchestra and choral concerts, public forums, nominating conventions, classroom assembly presentations, community singing, and special lectures.

Our auditorium arts were born of the necessity of holding study sessions in the auditorium and first impressions of the pupils were that the motion pictures and class presentations were simply entertainment designed to maintain order. Here the fact was first brought home to us that pupils tire even of motion pictures if these are regarded mainly as pastime. Two sound projectors were acquired through installment payments locally raised. Purchase of special books and magazines for free reading proved a slow and disheartening process, suddenly relieved by the discovery that more than enough of these could be obtained through periodic donations of teachers and certain pupils.

A faculty planning committee weekly organizes and posts the program. Teachers and pupils regularly assigned to an auditorium session set up a permanent pupil committee consisting of librarian, stage manager, chief usher, electrician, and the like, to take charge of meetings, distribute magazines for free reading, and introduce outside lecturers. Classes present programs in the auditorium without previous stage rehearsals and during regular class pe-

riods. The English classes give all pupils experience each semester in appearing publicly before their fellows. Pupils are grouped for auditorium sessions on the basis of grade level.

The auditorium arts are organized around major social areas, thus definitely relating them to the core curriculum. They have the twofold advantage of comprising experiences significant to the good life and yet occurring under conditions controlled by the school.

ACADEMIC STUDY CENTERS

While practice of high-class daily living forms the gist of study in general education, such practice is made significant and purposeful mainly through study and discussion connected with classroom activities. Much of this is necessarily of an academic nature. The study periods not spent by our pupils in the auditorium arts are chiefly occupied in a study center containing a library of nonfiction books and magazines dealing with core-curriculum fields and managed by pupil librarians, and in the school library. The lunchroom is pressed into service at times to permit effective grouping in the auditorium arts and in the core study center, pupils occupying it being chiefly those using basic textbooks in the study of specialized elective subjects. The libraries contain bibliographies of readings related to units of learning in the various core fields. All books, including those of classroom libraries, circulate overnight or longer. In general-education areas of the school's program, drawing of library books by pupils to pursue voluntarily and independently some aspect of work uncovered during the school day is regarded as especially promising evidence that functional learning is taking place.

CHILDREN STUDY CONSTRUCTION OF BUILDING

By FANCHON YEAGER¹

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A SINGULAR OPPORTUNITY to facilitate many-sided learnings and to utilize child interests was afforded a teacher of second grade children when a new elementary school was constructed on grounds adjacent to the building in which the children then lived. All of the operations included in the erection of the new school took place during the school year and because they were so close at hand and could be observed step by step, the construction project provided a natural laboratory for study. Such a study was appropriate in a school where children's interests are focal and where there is a recognition of the importance to the child of his immediate environment.

From the beginning the activities connected with the construction of the building evoked from the children spontaneous inquiries which seemed to provide a natural background for learning. Moreover it provided a fruitful terrain, out of which the rich objectives of the school could grow; it seemed to be an ideal project in which information and experience could be perfectly blended. The project was conducted through the following avenues. From the time the workmen appeared upon the grounds to dig, the children questioned. This eager and persistent questioning motivated the study. The digging of the foundation, the pouring of cement, the mixing of

mortar, the installation of plumbing, the heating and ventilating system, the bricklaying, the erection of steel reinforcements, installing of dumbwaiter, the placing of decorative limestone blocks exemplify the wide range of activities studied by the group.

On the basis of the questions, then, the study arose. To answer these questions the group made frequent trips to the building which in turn raised other questions. Craftsmen were watched at their work. Persons were interviewed from the architect and head engineer down to the least skilled workman. Materials were examined and attempts made at analysis which would reveal the purpose of the material and its composition. Not content with their own analysis, other persons were called in or sought out by the children to give more accurate information.

Since much of the information gained was of complex nature and apt to be forgotten if not met frequently, it became necessary to make some sort of record of the children's findings. An account was kept of each trip to the building. The account included a statement of the purpose of the trip —i.e., what specific problems the group meant to solve. Answers to the questions were given in the record. In addition, related informations were set down and the new problems recorded for future trips. These compositions, for such they were, came, of course, from the children. The group dictated sentences to the teacher who

¹I acknowledge the assistance of Dr. Hubert S. Coffey of the Central Washington College of Education in preparing this manuscript and suggesting some of the ways in which this project has been psychologically significant.

took down these statements and preserved them. A second type of record came about through the children's decision to make a collection of materials used in the building. An exhibit table was rapidly filled. At first in answer to inquiries from other children and adults, oral expression seemed sufficient, but later the need for some written explanation became evident and the children set about making cards to accompany each specimen in the collection. The following composition is offered as an illustration of the extent of language facility and maturity of thinking these children exhibited. "This is some exploded rock. It is used for insulation. It is put around the steel pipes inside the big clay pipe. It is put on the outside of the big clay pipes. The men sprawl the big clay pipes. They lie on their stomachs and poke the rock in around the pipes. It feels like cotton, but it is really rock. Once in a while you find a splinter in it. The men call it 'horsefeathers.' "

The group drew pictures of the building, illustrating each phase of its construction. Later these were organized in book form. The children now possess a pictorial record which begins with the lifting of the first shovelful of dirt to the placing of the last piece of limestone on the outer confines of the building.

It was evident that this active search for information and sustained interest could not be expected to remain within the boundaries of the second grade room. The enthusiasm was communicated to other children and adults to such an extent that the second grade children were called upon to give a public assembly where others would have the opportunity to learn about

the building. In such a setting, the second grade children served as experts in explaining the use of materials, and such technical details as the functioning of the ventilating and heating systems and in giving information about constructional devices to provide for safety. After this initial assembly, the second grade children were frequently sought by staff members, other children, and by groups of persons visiting the school as a reliable source of information.

Both during the time the project was developing and upon the completion of the study, it was necessary for the teacher to appraise the activity in terms of goals. Was the project valuable? What were the outcomes? To what extent did personal, emotional, and mental growth take place? In evaluating the project, it must be pointed out that much learning, both vital and personal, is incidental and thus escapes classification. To appraise the extent to which the unit implements the aims of the school one must keep in mind the activity as a whole. Throughout the study children were able to go about the building, handle equipment and materials, and question workmen. These experiences, with group discussions, provided opportunities for productive thinking. Children were led to utilize increasingly complex ideas, to express these ideas clearly, to organize and to frame questions about problems, and to see the relationship between cause and effect. The satisfaction of evident curiosity resulted in widening horizons of knowledge, as well as encouraging an appreciation of accurate information.

Frequent group meetings, committee reports, the formulating of sentences for composition, the framing

of questions to be taken to experts for answer afforded opportunity to develop in the child more effective ways of speaking to groups and to individuals. In their many trips through the building the children came to recognize the skill and craftsmanship of labor and to know personally many of the workmen. The danger of accidents to themselves and injury to expensive materials and equipment developed in the children a sense of responsibility for their own behavior and an appreciation of the rights of the workmen. The constant need of the children for expert advice about the details of the building sent them to the consulting engineer. Because of his friendly interest in children and insight into the value of the project, the children were enabled to recognize in him a person with much valuable information and to develop a feeling of real friendship. Children were led to evaluate their own and each others contributions to group discussions. A feeling of their own worth and that of the others grew out of such appraisals. Thus development in the many different facets of social behavior was brought about.

The elusive character of emotional development makes it difficult to formulate in concrete terms the progress which the children made. The project enabled the children to forge ahead thoughtfully and resourcefully in new ranges of experience not mapped out with familiar paths. The security in new-found tools and the friendliness arising out of common experiences tended to establish a new basis of rap-

port in one child with another as well as with the teacher. There is a real value of a deeply emotional and personal strength in the satisfaction felt by the child in acquiring a new area of information in which he has a feeling of adequacy and power.

In conclusion, one might raise the question as to the appropriateness of such an activity in relation to the level of development and maturity of second grade children. Adults who watched and listened to the children were astonished by the extent to which second grade children were able to deal with ideas and to speak with clearness and understanding on topics of difficult nature. It revealed to many who followed the activity, the fact that when children are intensely interested, when recognition of their needs is considered and when adequate guidance is given, young children are able to reach a level of comprehension beyond that which is commonly expected.

At present the children, now third-graders, are living in the new building. To some extent this circumstance provides an opportunity to make further evaluations of the project. Their enjoyment of its many conveniences, their appreciation of its beauty, their concern for its care, and their ability to look upon the completed structure as the result of careful planning and congenial human relationships is, in part, an outgrowth and development from these productive second-grade experiences.

Short Articles

COMPARISON OF VIEWPOINT OF PUPILS AND EDUCATORS

By Paul W. Harnly
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Grand Island, Nebraska

THIS ARTICLE reports some of the results obtained from 130 members of the Society for Curriculum Study and 1,572 Nebraska high school seniors, who marked an attitude scale¹ containing eighty statements about education. While the attitude scale was prepared primarily for high school seniors, the reaction of members of the Society for Curriculum Study was sought in order to secure a liberal point of view for purposes of comparison.

The statements contrasted a progressive liberal position with the traditional subject-matter educational program. They were divided into the following four divisions: some purposes of education; some general educational policies; what shall we teach? how shall we teach? In applying the scale, the subjects were asked to react to each statement as follows: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree. By assigning one point to the most liberal position and five points to the most conservative position, attitude scores ranging from eighty to 400 indicate the composite reaction toward the eighty aspects of education contained in the statements used. This total score is considered as a measure of the common attitude variable which might be called "progressivism" in education.

The scale was administered to a ten

¹The attitude scale may be obtained by sending a stamped, addressed long envelope to the writer.

per cent sample of high school seniors in Nebraska in an effort to ascertain what pupils think about the whole process of education to which they have been subjected for twelve years. Present educational psychology teaches that the possession by the pupils of definite goals, purposes, and knowledge of the whole situation is necessary for the best learning. If the pupils are to become capable of intelligent self-direction, it is essential that they have some standards of value, that they have practice in applying the standards, and that they understand at all times their own particular position in regard to the entire educational program.

In addition to the fact that pupils learn better if they understand why they use certain classroom devices and teaching materials, their attitudes or opinions concerning these things may have an important bearing on public support of education. In a few years these seniors will be voting citizens, taking an active part in community affairs. As they become older, most of them will probably tend to become more conservative rather than more liberal. Then, too, if pupils themselves understand the objectives to be reached and understand why some learning situations are superior to others, their enthusiastic support should assist in educating their parents, relatives, and neighbors. Many adults receive from children their major impressions of what the best kind of educational practices are. School administrators and teachers should always realize that their most vital contacts with home and community are

obtained through the pupils themselves.

Replies from the Nebraska schools indicate that only a few of them have given any attention to the definite development of desirable attitudes in these areas. In most schools the teachers seem to leave such teaching to chance. In general, what teaching is done in this area follows the usual practice in subject-matter fields, much of which consists in factual textbook learning without regard to changes of attitudes and new ways of acting.

The responses from the high school seniors were in most cases much more conservative than those from the members of the Society for Curriculum Study. Only five educators showed total scores more conservative than the average score of the total senior group. The mean score for 130 Society members was 127.08, as compared with a mean score for the 1,572 Nebraska high school seniors of 178.02.

The most significant findings of the study are found in the pattern of response to individual statements. While the number of educators taking the liberal position was always large, the degree of endorsement as distinguished by "strongly agree" or "agree" varied greatly from issue to issue. For example, in reacting to the statement, "Salaries of teachers should be adequate to attract men and women of high caliber to the teaching profession," every educator endorsed this with eighty-four per cent strongly agreeing and sixteen per cent agreeing; while for the statement, "If a pupil dislikes a subject, it is often due to faulty teaching methods," a total of eighty-six per cent endorsed the statement, but only thirty-one per cent strongly agreed and fifty-five per cent agreed, while seven

per cent were undecided, and the remaining seven per cent disagreed. The pupil response to the latter statement was: strongly agree, fifteen per cent; agree, fifty-one per cent; undecided, eight per cent; disagree, twenty-three per cent; strongly disagree, three per cent.

Unfortunately, in this short article it is impossible to give more comparisons of this type, but a few general trends of the study will be summarized. If one adds together the "strongly agree" and "agree" responses for the liberal position he finds overwhelming endorsement by the educators in all but a few cases. In forty-two of the eighty statements, ninety-five per cent or more of the responses of the Curriculum Society members are definitely liberal as compared with only two statements for the high school seniors. In no statement did fewer than sixty-six per cent of the educators endorse the liberal position as compared with twenty-one of the statements of the pupils.

The most conservative positions taken by the educators were on the following statements: "Schools should use every scientific method to predict what boys and girls are likely to do as adults and then give them definite preparation for them"; "The school helps materially to expose a lot of worn-out medieval superstitions"; "Educational practice should change very slowly and only after we are absolutely certain that such change is desirable"; and "Each pupil should be given all possible scientific tests to determine what he can do best."

No comment from those marking the papers was requested, but there were frequent suggestions or criticisms penciled in the margins or given in

personal letters. The remarks concerning the following statement were especially caustic: "Sex instruction under competent, well-trained teachers should be given to every high school pupil." The remarks might be summed up in the statement: "Who is competent to give this instruction?"

The greatest differences were registered between Curriculum Society members and seniors on the following statements: "Mastery of textbook facts is the most important objective of classwork"; "The school should not educate for leisure time"; "Salaries of teachers are too low in comparison with the income of other professions"; "School buildings should be used only for public school work and school activities"; "The teacher should plan work fitted to the average of the class rather than a program adapted to each individual"; "Regardless of what one is to do in life, the college preparatory course is the best to take"; "School buildings should be among the most attractive architecturally"; "The school should teach pupils how to resist high-pressure advertising."

In general, the high school seniors believed in the traditional subject-matter centered school, but they did show considerable desire for opportunity to participate in vital meaningful learning experiences. Areas revealing such attitudes are: controversial issues should be taught—*i. e.*, pupils should learn to seek explanations, causes, and consequences of social and economic questions, should learn to be open-minded about public questions, and should discuss the merits of both sides of social-economic questions; pupils should actually participate in community activities as a part of regular schoolwork; the school should help

pupils find out what they can do best; interest rather than compulsion should be the dominating urge to learn.

The writer was greatly surprised at the response to: "Pupils should be informed concerning the most progressive methods of education." He anticipated that this statement would receive almost unanimous support by our members, but it ranked sixty-fifth among the eighty statements. In fact, it is the only statement for which the pupils were clearly more liberal than the educators. Since the whole study was based upon the assumption that we should be doing much more in educating pupils regarding the relative value of various kinds of learning experiences, the above attitude seems a little disconcerting.

THE ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT BUREAU IN NEW YORK STATE

By Helen Hay Heyl
Chief, Bureau of Curriculum Development
New York State Education Department

THE BUREAU of Curriculum Development of the Elementary Education Division was organized by the Board of Regents on July 30, 1937, and began to function with one worker in charge on December 9, 1937. The actual transfer to the new division took place on August 8, 1938.

The child's curriculum, as viewed in this Bureau, includes the sum total of the child's experiences in his environment both in and out of school. The school curriculum includes all those experiences of children, both in and out of school, which teachers use in guiding the individual child's growth and development. Such a concept of the curriculum implies the

need for developing a coordination of the elementary school program of studies (the various elementary school subjects) and the child's school experiences and out-of-school experiences.

To accomplish this purpose it would seem that the state must assume a fourfold responsibility for the elementary school curriculum: 1. It must provide leadership in curriculum development for local school systems. 2. It must recast the state syllabuses and other curriculum materials published by the department in such form as will offer all schools a well-coordinated and functioning program. 3. It must guide curriculum programs in the schools. 4. It must be able to give competent advice and assistance to local school officials, teachers, and curriculum committees through visitation and conferences.

Obviously such a program cannot render its largest service if it becomes an end in itself. It should develop as an integral part of the total educational program for elementary schools.

Among important functions of the Bureau which have developed during the year in response to needs and in keeping with the above policies are the following: 1. guiding the development of the elementary curriculum in the schools; 2. providing the organization and services necessary in the production of elementary curriculum materials for the state; 3. offering leadership and service to the schools of the state interested in improving their local curriculums; 4. advising and assisting local curriculum committees in preparing new courses of study; 5. stimulating curriculum work among general and special supervisors in the department of education who can contribute to the elementary program; 6.

cooperating with department specialists who are at work on curriculum projects in elementary education in connection with their own major field of interest or who are interested in beginning such projects; 7. acting as a clearinghouse for all workers in the department who desire to prepare instructional outlines, suggestions, courses of study, syllabi, guides, or similar curriculum materials for elementary schools; and 8. aiding in the establishment of the department's curriculum policies.

At present this program of work is being developed along seven lines: 1. We are serving local committees who come to the Bureau for advice and assistance on curriculum problems. We have received and served fifteen such curriculum committees during our first year of organization and twelve other such committees since August, 1939. 2. We are preparing and issuing materials to the schools. 3. We are visiting schools to aid them in the study of and evaluation of their curriculum programs or to assist them in organizing for curriculum revision. 4. We are developing a small curriculum laboratory where curriculum workers from the schools may come to work on their problems. 5. We are fostering curriculum projects in many centers of the state and in a few selected areas are working intimately on a personal basis with groups in order to ascertain the practical functioning of our recommendations. 6. We are working with state committees as appointed by the Board of Regents and with normal schools, teachers colleges, and state organizations such as the Elementary School Principals, State Geographers Association, and the State Council for the Social Studies. 7. We

are cooperating with other bureaus and divisions in the department.

This year the Bureau has been responsible for establishing new services in the field of curriculum development and for carrying forward certain curriculum projects already in progress before the Bureau was established, such as: the new program in the language arts; publications in the field of safety education; and the social studies program. The Curriculum Development Bureau has given advisory help to several committees, and it also revised and edited the manuscript produced by these committees.

In carrying out these purposes and plans, the Curriculum Bureau has now assembled: 1. a textbook library of approximately 500 volumes, including pamphlets and research studies; 2. a curriculum library of sixty-eight courses of study from other states and forty-seven new local courses of study which have been developed in New York State during the past two years; 3. a file of approximately 150 units of work which have been collected from our elementary schools; 4. a mailing list of more than 300 persons who are corresponding and working on curriculum problems with the Bureau. The Bureau has prepared and issued or has collaborated in the preparation of over fifteen pamphlets and leaflets.

EDUCATION FOR HOME AND FAMILY LIFE

THE DEPARTMENT of Home Economics of the National Education Association, the Society for Curriculum Study, and the United States Office of Education are planning a publication designed to aid schools in planning their curriculum so as to help

individuals with problems in home and family living. The committee hopes to have a publication ready for presentation by February, 1941.

The purposes of the project are as follows: to prepare a statement of situations and problems facing the individual at various levels in the field of home and family living; to describe practices of promise in schools and colleges, and with youth and adult groups in which the schools participate; and to develop suggestions for planning curriculum experiences in this area.

At the February, 1936, meeting of the Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics of the National Education Association, the president and the chairman of the yearbook committee called together a group to make tentative plans for a publication which might serve as a guide to home economics teachers and as an aid to groups in curriculum planning. Costs were investigated and further plans worked on until at the February, 1938, meeting the executive committee voted to investigate the possibilities of cooperating on a somewhat broader type of publication with another national organization.

In 1937, the executive committee of the Society for Curriculum Study was asked to consider a publication dealing with education for home and family living at the elementary school level. At the February, 1938, meeting the executive committee voted its approval of the idea and asked one of their number to investigate the possibility of such a publication concerned with this area of education at all school levels.

Learning of each other's plans, the two organizations voted in February,

1939, to cooperate in the preparation of a publication dealing with curricular problems in education for home and family living. In the meantime, the American Association of School Administrators selected Education for Family Life as the theme of its 1941 Yearbook. This coincidence makes it possible for the jointly sponsored publication to emphasize particularly the curriculum problems of teachers with confidence that the administrative problems will be fully considered in the yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators.

In August, 1939, Commissioner Studebaker, learning of the need for funds by the committee, offered to supplement those of the Home Economics Department of the National Education Association to meet expenses of committee members in connection with the publication. The committees appointed by the respective societies consist of the following: The Society for Curriculum Study—Bess Goodykoontz, Assistant Commissioner of Education, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; Edith Bader, Assistant Superintendent of Public Schools, Ann Arbor, Michigan; William H. Bristow, Dean of Instruction, State Teachers College, Shippensburg, Pennsylvania; and C. L. Cushman, Coordinator, Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. The Department of Home Economics of the National Education Association — Beulah I. Coon, Agent for Studies and Research, Home Economics Education Service, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; Erma Christy, City Supervisor of Home Economics, Muncie, Indiana; Mildred W.

Wood, Supervisor of Homemaking Education, Phoenix Union High School, Phoenix, Arizona; and Frances Zuill, Director of Home Economics, College of Agriculture, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

One section of the proposed publication will consist of descriptions of school practices which have seemed effective in helping individuals with home and family living problems in the elementary school, the secondary school, in college, in adult groups and teachers in training. The committee is now trying to secure information on practices which should be fully described in the Yearbook. These practices might include:

1. Cooperative planning among various departments and services of the school to help students to solve problems in home and family living; for example, nutrition programs, observing and helping with small children so as to gain greater understanding of them, recreational activities, etc.
2. Cooperative planning by homes and schools of units concerned with home and family problems, of both school and out-of-school schedules, home assignments, recreations, school lunches, etc.
3. Developing courses, or units of courses, dealing at appropriate levels with such problems as: sharing home responsibilities, establishing good health habits, understanding differences in home and cultural patterns of families, developing satisfying relationships with own and other age groups, consumer buying, housing, etc.
4. Using home and environmental data in guidance of young people and adults in their problems of home and family living; for example, through home visits, home and school projects

varied for individuals, personal consultation, psychological or psychiatric service, family counseling, discussion groups, etc.

5. Developing and using an environment which is significant for home and family life in the community; for example, providing opportunity for parents and students to work and play together; cooperative living arrangements; improving appearance, healthfulness, efficiency of school and grounds, etc.

6. Developing with community agencies cooperative projects which improve family living; such as home improvement, housing surveys, library facilities, planning motion picture and other recreation programs, home gardens, etc.

The committee will welcome the names of institutions in which promising practices may be found.

CURRICULUM REVISION IN A DIOCESAN SYSTEM

By Sister Mary de Paul
Siena Heights College, Adrian, Michigan

THE FOLLOWING plan is suggested for initiating a program of curriculum revision with the intention of finding as many opportunities as possible for including more objectives, content materials, and activities that are closely interwoven with the out-of-school life of the pupils. Since a diocesan school system is unique in itself and is made up of members of various religious teaching communities and congregations, it is quite necessary that a well-organized plan take cognizance of that fact and make provisions for participation of all groups represented in the system.

Determining the Need for Curriculum Revision. There should be a detailed study of some of the real problems of living today. An honest consideration of the needs of boys and girls in this ever-changing society should give some basis for the selection of new materials, and the remodeling or rejection of old, useless ones. Teachers in our schools should be aware of the various conflicting psychologies underlying the educational programs today, and should have a comprehensive understanding of the philosophy and psychology of Thomas Aquinas. If they knew that Aquinas was more modern than the most progressive educator today, they might modify their processes somewhat and alter their plans. Therefore, in order to understand that the so-called activity movement is not contrary to the philosophy of Catholic education, teachers must know the modern educational psychologies and their comparisons with Catholic philosophy.

Preparation of Teachers for the Program. The period of orientation should be begun by presentation of problems for discussion at regular teachers meetings and by offering extramural courses in which the teachers could enroll for the study of contemporary problems. Discussions of these problems and their effects upon the life in the community would help define the purpose of education within that community. In any program dealing with life situations, it is very necessary that the philosophy be set up in terms of actual needs, both present and future. Groups of teachers should be organized in working committees to study the laws of learning and their application to the various phases of education. These commit-

tees should represent a cross-section of the entire teaching staff of the diocese. They should formulate recommendations to be given to all other members of the revision program. Once these recommendations have been made and acted upon jointly, the philosophy set up, then a set of goals should be set toward which the curriculum revision program should aim.

Producing the Materials. All teachers should participate in the production of the curricular materials, according to their capacities, interests, and needs. However, the subject-matter specialists, under the direction of the curriculum consultant and curriculum director, should assist the teachers in planning and in developing units. In all probability, the more capable teachers will be the ones who will produce much of actual and usable material, but they should secure the cooperation of all other teachers by asking them to try out certain units or parts of units and to make suggestions as to content and experiences.

Individual teachers should be selected for the production and preliminary try-out of units of work. After experimentation, the tentative units should be revised in the light of criticisms received and then submitted for second trial. Care must be taken that the preliminary trials be made in schools that are typical in the system as well as in those that are not typical. No unit should be given a preliminary try-out until it has been fully approved by the curriculum consultant and the curriculum director.

Installing the Materials. Committees selected from members of the groups participating should be chosen to act as installation committees. They should plan for the orientation of all

teachers in the system so that no one will be unfamiliar with the units on any given level. This would necessitate the demonstration of units on all levels in all types of situations. Only the best teachers should be chosen to give these demonstrations and these teachers should afterwards be free to visit the classes of the novice teachers when they work the units out for the first time in order to offer assistance and encouragement. Teachers on each level should meet often before, during, and after the preliminary try-out, and the installation of the materials. Discussions *pro* and *con* of the materials suggested should bring out the defects and help clarify procedures. The curriculum director and the community supervisors should follow the work very closely in order to help teachers in planning and revising parts to fit specific situations, and to make materials more usable in classrooms. It should be suggested that teachers as well as supervisors keep a diary record of each unit and offer in general meetings such recommendations as seem feasible for the revision of materials. The reactions of pupils to each part of the units should be given much consideration and their suggestions incorporated into the records.

THE STUDY CENTER AS IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

By Bert R. Smith
Western Kentucky State Teachers College

THE STUDY CENTER is a form of supervised in-service training offered by Western Kentucky State Teachers College when and where it is most convenient for the students. The work is conducted through the Extension Department by a regular

faculty member of the education staff and is approved by the Council on Public Higher Education. Each center is supported by nominal tuition fees, the staff member receiving expenses and a small allowance from the fees collected.

These supervised centers are organized through the efforts of the superintendents, supervisors, principals, and teachers. Some of those enrolled are college graduates and do not seek college credits. The work of the centers has the following purposes: to develop a cooperative plan of applied supervision for the schools; to study and improve the curriculum; to improve the teachers in service; and to evaluate the results of applied supervision objectively.

In the development of the plan of supervision a survey to determine needs is made by the director, the superintendent, the supervisor, principals, and teachers. Visits by the superintendent and supervisor are made on call to some of the schools; age-grade and grade-progress tables are completed by the end of the second week; a comprehensive diagnostic testing program is carried on in each school; a study is made of every pupil in school, consisting of his physical, mental, moral, emotional, social, vocational, and avocational condition. By a scheme of cooperative evaluation a combined list of needs is formulated. From this list

the objectives are set up for a long-time program. Some of the more pressing needs, common to all, are selected for immediate action, such as a county-wide health program through the cooperation of the doctors and nurses in the County Health Unit.

In studying and improving the curriculum two points are stressed. Each teacher revises her course of study for one subject in one grade as a guide. Then she selects, develops, and teaches one of the units proposed in her course of study. When the introduction of units of work around centers of interests is once fully started, it has been our experience that it continues indefinitely. Many studies dealing with groups and individual problem children are made. Much emphasis is placed on the techniques of studying and learning. Workbooks, mimeograph, hectograph, and ditto materials with much free materials are studied and introduced in the various schools.

The superintendent and supervisor evaluate results by the change in the community's interest for the schools, by the change in the teacher's attitude towards her work, by the change in the pupil's reaction to the whole scheme of improvement. The principals and teachers evaluate the results by a second testing program. We find that the teachers improve because they are helped to do better the essential thing which they are doing anyway.



Curriculum Research

RETARDATION POINTS TO NEED FOR CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENT

Under the direction of Superintendent V. F. Dawald, the Beloit (Wisconsin) Schools issued a recent survey,¹ the purpose of which was to find the existing condition of overage and retardation in the Beloit schools. The data were gathered on all children in Grades 1 to 9 and were summarized in tables showing the grade progress by number of years retarded or accelerated.

Out of a total of 3,920 children, 954, or 24.33 per cent, are overage for their grade. Out of a total of 3,175 children, on whom complete data were secured, 35.74 per cent are retarded one year or more. Of this group 26.96 per cent are retarded one year, 6.96 per cent two years, and 1.82 per cent three years. As in overage-ness, a decline takes place in retardation after Grade 8.

Because of the high percentage of overage and retardation existing in the Beloit schools, a detailed study of these two problems should be made in order to determine their specific causes. The influence of such factors as sex, adolescence, environment, mental ability, personality, curriculum organization, race, economic status, pupil interests, and entrance before standard age, all offer avenues through which the problems can be approached. Classroom teachers are in a strategic position to attack the problems on an individual but systematic basis.

¹Dawald, V. F. and Sosted, H. A. A Survey of Age-Grade Progress, Grades 1-9. Research Bulletin No. 4. Beloit, Wisconsin: Public Schools, 1939. 46 p. Mimeographed.

In order to make it possible to advance all pupils who became thirteen years of age into the junior high schools, provisions should be made in each junior high school, both in curriculum and instruction, to care for the maladjusted overage and retarded children. Curriculum adjustments, particularly in elementary schools where a high percentage of overage-ness and retardation exist, should be made to meet the personal needs of the learner in light of his mental ability and social maturity.

As an outgrowth of the survey, two classes for exceptional children were established in two junior high schools. The instruction in these rooms is in charge of a teacher trained in the teaching of the handicapped.

HUNT, ROLFE LANIER—*A Study of Factors Influencing the Public School Curriculum of Kentucky*. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers. 1939. Doctor's dissertation.

In studying the influences that have shaped the curriculum, the author's purpose was "to list the factors and to show them in action, rather than to compute the effects of a factor." In his opinion, a careful survey of the factors which influenced curriculum construction in the past is necessary so that we may recognize their presence and evaluate their influence in constructing the curriculum of the future. The study is restricted to the development of the curriculum in Kentucky.

The first part of the work takes up a review of the development of the Ken-

tucky common-school curriculum as regards legislative action. The first act merely set up a system of public schools, but made no specific mention of subject-matter requirements, either as regards the school offerings or the qualifications of the teachers. In 1845, parents were legally confirmed in their right to select any texts they might choose, but in 1851 this privilege was transferred to the State Board of Education, specifying that the curricular offerings "should not go beyond the elements of a plain education in English, including grammar, arithmetic, and geography." Succeeding years saw the establishment of Negro schools and the addition of more and more courses by legislative action until in 1934, when extensive grants of power in this respect were given to the State Board of Education and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

In listing the factors which brought about these various changes in subject matter, the author has made no attempt to place them in the order of their importance, nor has he been able to avoid their occasional overlapping. He has set them down in a rather detailed manner and with a great mass of illustrative matter.

Among these factors, those which seem most worthy of note because of their influence on the development of the curriculum, not only in Kentucky but everywhere, are the following: the functions which society defines for the school; the advances of science and industry; homogeneity of the population; educational aims and objectives; methods and instructional devices; imitation of other localities; popular opinion; pressure groups; administrative policies of public agencies and administrative officials; the needs and

abilities of the pupil; the influence of the teaching profession; the business of writing and selling textbooks; and the housing and equipment of the schools.

The more important of the author's conclusions are: that the process of curriculum revision be kept on a democratic plane; that the teaching profession take a more active leadership in this problem; that the child's needs and abilities serve as the real criteria of curriculum values; that children be taught how to think rather than what to think; that national aid to schools be carefully evaluated and restrained where it would exercise too rigid a control; that selfish pressure groups and commercial interests be curtailed in their activity in the schools; and that the schools be permitted and encouraged to experiment freely to build up a satisfactory public school curriculum.

ADOLPH A. KLAUTSCH
University of Illinois

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COLVERT, CLYDE C.—*The Public Junior College Curriculum*. University, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press. 1939. 177 p. \$2.25.

The purpose of this study was to discover the offerings of the present public junior colleges and to determine future trends. The data were taken from the college catalogs of 195 institutions, or 85.2 per cent of all public junior colleges. The most common academic courses offered include: English, speech, French, German, Spanish, European and world history, government, psychology, economics, physical education, sociology, mathematics, chemistry, the biological sciences, and physics. The most common non-aca-

demic courses are music, art, commerce, engineering, education, and home economics. The ratio of academic to non-academic courses offered is about two to one. Only 23.6 per cent of the 195 colleges offer orientation courses. The offerings in English, social sciences, physical education, commerce, and music show the greatest increase since 1921; while modern and ancient languages show the greatest decrease.

The author concludes that the junior colleges with enrollments of fewer

than 300 students neglect the non-academic courses. Nearly all the junior colleges need to incorporate a core offering in general education. He further suggests the provision of a guidance program and the inclusion of a program of adult education. This is largely a quantitative study of the present situation in terms of course titles and semester hours. It does not include a detailed study of the content or the quality of the junior college curriculum.

SOCIETY FOR CURRICULUM STUDY

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

February 1, 1939, to February 1, 1940.

RECEIPTS

	1938	1939
Cash on hand, February.....	\$ 597.64	\$ 723.37
Dues	1,215.00	1,452.50
Subscriptions	1,083.34	1,196.18
Single copies of <i>CURRICULUM JOURNAL</i>	44.99	52.49
Royalty on books prepared by committees of Society.....	706.21	588.35
Advance orders on <i>Community School</i>	94.50	
Miscellaneous	2.00	
	<hr/> \$3,743.68	<hr/> \$4,012.89

EXPENDITURES

Stationery, envelopes, and printing.....	\$ 160.84	\$ 184.32
Stenographic services for year.....	1,211.40	1,260.00
Postage	225.57	211.03
Printing of <i>CURRICULUM JOURNAL</i>	1,126.25	1,320.00
Mailing <i>CURRICULUM JOURNAL</i>	45.55	39.25
Conferences	9.50	90.32
Petty cash	12.17	7.34
Miscellaneous	30.87	36.87
	<hr/> \$3,020.31	<hr/> \$3,149.13
Balance on hand.....	\$ 723.37	\$ 863.76

Reviews

NEWLON, JESSE H.—*Education for Democracy in Our Time*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1939. 242 p. \$2.50.

This volume presents an overview of the topic of democracy which is, in many respects, admirably adapted to the needs of the teaching profession and to laymen who are interested in the question of democracy in its relation to education. In simple, non-technical language the author portrays the nature of the present social crisis, the limitations of scientific method in dealing with current educational issues, the promise of American life, the confusion of counsel that prevails with respect to policy, and the complexity of the task confronting the American people if a democratic solution is to be found for our social and educational problems. It is shown in the light of historical perspective that democracy in our time is not a compartmentalized affair, but must be made over into an inclusive way of life, if it is to offer effective competition to movements like Fascism and communism, which have appeared upon the scene as rivals of democracy. Finally, a social program is offered for the American school and for the teaching profession, which is based on the contention that education must assume responsibility for the nurture of the democratic spirit.

It would be easy to enlarge on the historic insight of the author, the sanity of his proposals, and his sensitivity to practical difficulties. The general tone of the discussion is itself an exemplification of the democratic spirit, in behalf of which the book is

written. However, since reviews are expected to convey the impression that the reviewer knows more about the topic than the author, a couple of critical comments may be offered instead. One of these relates to the proposition that democracy must be interpreted as a name for a way of life. If this is the case, it is hardly defensible to center the discussion of democracy so exclusively on politics and economics. There is no gainsaying the fact, for example, that we have a theological heritage which is authoritarian in quality and which constitutes a formidable obstacle to the spread of the scientific attitude in social matters, which the author rightly deems essential to the practice of democracy. This heritage is all the more potent because it is so consistently ignored in educational discussions. Why this conspiracy of silence? A genuinely democratic program in education must make provision for reconstruction in areas like religion and ethics and literature and the arts, as well as in the areas of politics and economics, if it is to lay claim to adequacy. Oversimplification of the problem is likely to end in frustration.

The second comment has reference to the familiar topic of indoctrination. On the one hand, the author insists that there must be no imposition of beliefs. "The aim must be to make the individual intellectually a free man" (p. 102). But, on the other hand, education should be "consciously planned to win American youth to loyalty to democracy," by which is meant "loyalty to the ideals of free-

dom of inquiry, freedom of thought, of speech, of publication" (pp. 216, 217). It is not altogether obvious how these two positions are to be reconciled. What they seem to say is, first, that any specific proposition should be considered strictly on its merits, but, secondly, that the question of advocating freedom of inquiry, etc., is not to be considered in the same way. If this question is no different from other questions, why talk of planning to win the loyalty of our young people? Democracy is on firmer ground if it contents itself with promoting an understanding of the democratic point of view. Its quarrel with authoritarianism lies in the fact that the latter make no serious attempt to provide a genuine option. Democracy proceeds in the faith that its truth will prevail if given a decent chance.

These comments are not offered to detract from the merit of the book. If they serve any purpose at all, it is to stimulate further thinking about democracy, a purpose to the fulfillment of which this book is an important contribution.

B. H. BODE
Ohio State University

CLAPP, ELSIE RIPLEY — *Community Schools in Action*. New York: The Viking Press. 1939. 391 p. \$3.75.

Community Schools in Action is a description of two community-school programs, one developed in the Roger Clark Ballard Memorial School, located in a rural area near Louisville, Kentucky, and the other in the Arthurdale School, Arthurdale, West Virginia, a community of homesteads established by the United States government. The book is a contribution to the growing

literature dealing with community education. It should be most useful to administrators and teachers because of the sympathetic understanding of the immediate vital problems faced in this type of education and the story of the practical ways and means developed to solve these problems. At the same time the programs described, and the book itself, illustrate a weakness all too common in community-school programs. There is no concrete basic social philosophy.

In a brief introduction John Dewey develops an excellent orientation for community schools. He writes: "The reason, I believe, why more is said and written than done about the social function of schools is that 'society' is taken as a kind of sociological and academic entity, instead of as the lives of men, women, boys, and girls going on right around us. Under such circumstances, writing becomes pale and shadowy—abstractions dealing in remote language with an abstraction. The neighborhood is the prime community; it certainly is so for the children and youth who are educated in the school, and it must be so for administrators and teachers if the idea of socially functioning schools is to take on flesh and blood. There is no occasion for fear that the local community will not provide roads leading out into wider human relations if the opportunities it furnishes are taken advantage of."

In the programs at the Ballard School, as well as in Arthurdale, "society" is taken . . . as the lives of men, women, boys, and girls going on right around us." All those who value a sympathetic, understanding relationship between teachers, pupils, and parents should be delighted with the ac-

count of the development of these two schools. Teachers and administrators engaged in somewhat similar educational ventures will find the book rich in practical ways and means. The Ballard County Fair, the Women's Food Exchange, pre-school clinics, the parents' share in the work of the schools, the way in which the environment permeated the elementary curriculum of the Arthurdale School, the use of local ballads, drama, and history, and the repeated union of school and community activities, illustrate an unusual understanding of immediate personal and community problems. The rural high school at Arthurdale is, however, comparatively conservative, showing far less imagination and resourcefulness in adaptation to community needs than the two elementary school programs.

Brief descriptions of the historical development of the two schools help the reader to understand the process of educational development in both situations. The book is rich in suggestion of practical methods and rich also in the quality of human contacts which is at the heart of everyday living in a democracy.

One misses, however, in these programs, the same quality of understanding of the relationship of local problems and difficulties to the national scene and the larger society. There is real concern for the practice of democracy in face-to-face relationships, but all too little concern with an analysis of the major social problems of modern America or of the South of which local problems are an inextricable part.

The programs described are not sufficiently intellectualized. Issues such as those of race, farm tenancy, unioni-

zation, conservation of human and natural resources, unemployment, paternalism, dictatorship, nationalism, the maldistribution of wealth and income—in a word, the sickness of an acquisitive society—are noticeable for their almost entire absence. The present reviewer, at least, feels that *Community Schools in Action* would have been a richer book had the author, out of her broad experience of the last few years, not only described the programs of the schools, as she has done, but brought to bear in her analysis a more critical attitude, both as regards the schools and the social process in American life.

Belief in democracy, even practice of democracy in face-to-face relationships, is not enough. In the long run, and over the years, community schools, and indeed all other educational institutions, to be effective, must lead children, youth, and adults to think through the major issues in modern society. In the words of John Dewey: "There is no occasion for fear that the local community will not provide roads leading out into wider human relations if the opportunities it furnishes are taken advantage of." It is the responsibility of those who are engaged in community education to see to it that advantage is taken of all opportunities. Indeed, helping to think through the larger social problems of American life in the present stage of our development may very well be the first responsibility, not only of all educators, but all intelligent citizens. If the community-school movement can help to do this it will have made a major contribution to American life.

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BROENING, ANGELA M. AND OTHERS
—*Conducting Experiences in English*. National Council of Teachers of English, Monograph No. 8. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1939. 394 p.

In 1935, the National Council of Teachers of English, through a large committee, of which W. Wilbur Hatfield was chairman, issued a volume entitled *An Experience Curriculum in English*. Various conditions, motives, and understandings influenced the report. Teachers were dissatisfied with the results of previous curricula; a rapidly-growing secondary school population offered new problems and emphasized old ones; educators generally were accepting, at least superficially, a demand for a practical education and along with this acceptance were adopting the phraseology of the John Dewey philosophy. Moreover, numerous surveys of adult reading in the United States indicated the inadequacy of the formal courses in vogue. Earnestly a committee undertook to develop a more vital program in English.

Immediately, however, they found themselves in a difficult situation. English is a somewhat unique area in the school. The chief means of communication, it is dependent upon real experiences for vitality. We do not tell two strangers to begin talking clearly and vigorously. People must have something to communicate, a motive for communication, and an opportunity or situation suitable. Thus spoken and written composition had previously often lacked vitality by being taught for their own sake. Obviously, an ideal curriculum would enable the teacher of English to deal with language problems in meaningful situations. These the school did not

then offer in large measure, although today, but a decade since the committee began its work, many schools do provide rich opportunities. The English teachers, therefore, set out to find situations which they could bring into or set up in their classrooms, and in which language was essential. *Languages in General Education*, a recent publication of the P. E. A. Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, points out their difficulty:

"Lastly, the so-called 'experiences in English,' which have recently absorbed more and more of the time devoted to English classes and of the thought of English teachers in secondary schools, can be defined as the study of any human activity or occupation in which English, the language, is used. It is obvious that there is no limit in a highly verbalized society to the number of directions these studies can take, or to the extent to which they can be pushed in any direction. . . . Bound to English in the first place by purely fortuitous ties, the study of these activities rarely becomes a study of English, and remains almost wholly a study of the activities themselves which involve the language."

In consequence of the foregoing the report included many contradictory and confusing suggestions; and important and trivial, as well as practical and pedantic, experiences appeared side by side. Nevertheless, the important emphasis on the need for a more honest and vital teaching outweighed the defects, readily admitted by the book's authors.

Only two years later a second committee was authorized to discover how teachers were giving form to the proposals of the first report. The new publication, *Conducting Experiences*

in English, contains collected descriptions of such teaching. These range from important studies of individual and community problems, in which language and literature serve as means to an end, to the utilization of children's needs and interests as means for dressing up a predetermined unit. The book as a whole, however, includes many illustrations which, to the present reviewer, seem far in advance of those offered as guides in the first volume. This is high praise of the original report.

One cannot read the descriptions in *Conducting Experiences* without realizing two important matters: (1) that these English teachers reporting are eager to meet the real needs of young people; and (2) that they cannot do this adequately alone. In order to help children to write and speak about local problems, they first investigate these problems. Where are the teachers of social studies, of guidance, of vocations, when teachers of English cannot find these investigations already under way? If they are in process, why are

the teachers of language remote from the issue?

The book is in three parts: Directing Experiences Through Literature; Sharing Experiences Through Communication; Solving Teaching-Supervisory Problems. The plan is most ambitious, resulting in some cases (as with corrective teaching) in a superficial or at least one-sided presentation. Especially valuable is a source section containing lists of references, including periodicals for use by teachers and pupils. An excellent index, designed, as seems seldom the case, for use, needs especial commendation.

If the book is used, as it should be, to stimulate thinking and promote experimentation it can be of great service; teachers and supervisors should beware, however, the temptation to take over a unit. The most valuable experiences in a classroom are usually those which cannot be copied or repeated. Its reading by an entire staff might well result in a closer integration of the work of all areas.

LOU LABRANT
Ohio State University



New Publications

BOOKS

ALLARD, LUCILE—*A Study of the Leisure Activities of Certain Elementary School Teachers of Long Island.* Contribution to Education No. 779. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1939. 117 p. \$1.60.

AXTELLE, GEORGE E. AND WATTENBERG, WILLIAM W., Editors—*Teachers for Democracy.* Fourth Yearbook, John Dewey Society. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1940. 412 p. \$2.50.

BREUECKNER, LEO J. AND OTHERS—*The Changing Elementary School.* The Elementary Education Report of the Regents' Inquiry Into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: Inor Publishing Company. 1939. 408 p. \$3.50.

COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM—*Language in General Education.* A Report of the Committee on the Function of English in General Education. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1940. 226 p. \$2.00.

DODDS, B. L.—*That All May Learn.* Chicago, Illinois: National Association of Secondary-School Principals. November, 1939. 235 p. Paper covers.

HARRIS, AUGUSTA AND KEYS, DONNABEL—*Teaching Social Dancing.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1940. 233 p. \$2.50.

LEE, J. MURRAY AND LEE, DORRIS MAY—*The Child and His Curriculum.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1940. 632 p. \$3.00.

NATIONAL RESOURCES COMMITTEE—*Consumer Expenditures in the United States.* Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1939. 195 p. Paper covers. 50 cents.

REINOEHL, CHARLES M. AND AYER, FRED C.—*Classroom Administration and Pupil Adjustment.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1940. 523 p. \$2.75.

SPEARS, HAROLD—*The Emerging High School Curriculum and Its Direction.* New York: American Book Company. 1940. 400 p. \$2.50.

TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD—*Rural Education Number.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. January, 1940. 123 p. Paper covers. 45 cents.

TURNER, IVAN STEWART—*The Training of Mathematics Teachers.* Fourteenth Yearbook, The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Bureau of Pub-

lications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1939. 231 p. \$1.75.

WYNNE, JOHN P.—*The Educative Experience.* Farmville, Virginia: The Farmville Herald. 1940. 107 p. Paper covers.

PAMPHLETS

BOWMAN, ISAIAH—*The Graduate School in American Democracy.* United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1939, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1939. 70 p. Paper covers. 10 cents.

BROWN, MARION AND MARTIN, VIBELLA—*Techniques of Treating Data on Characteristics of High School Students.* Oakland, California: University High School. November, 1939. 47 p. Paper covers. 35 cents.

DAWALD, V. F. AND SOSTED, H. A.—*A Survey of Age-Grade Progress.* Grades 1-9. Research Bulletin No. 4. Beloit, Wisconsin: Public Schools. 1939. 46 p. Mimeographed.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION—*Schools of Democracy.* Six radio scripts based upon the report: *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1939. 29 p. Paper covers. 10 cents.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION—*Deliberative Committee Reports.* Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1939. 54 p. Paper covers. 50 cents.

FOSTER, WILLIAM T.—*Loan Sharks and Their Victims.* Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 39. New York: Silver Burdett Company. 1940. 31 p. Paper covers. 10 cents.

HORTON, DOUGLAS—*Toward a Peaceful Pacific.* New York: Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue. 1940. 39 p. Paper covers. 15 cents.

HOUSEHOLD FINANCE CORPORATION—*Furniture.* Better Buymanship Bulletin No. 26. Chicago, Illinois: Household Finance Corporation, 919 North Michigan Avenue. 1939. 38 p. Paper covers.

LATON, ANITA D.—*A Handbook for Student Teachers and the Supervisory Staff.* Oakland, California: University High School Journal. January, 1940. 63 p. Paper covers. 35 cents.

MORRISON, BESS VIEMONT—*Judging Fabric Quality.* Farmers' Bulletin No. 1831. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1939. 22 p. Paper covers. 5 cents.

- NATIONAL RESOURCES COMMITTEE—*The Consumer Spends His Income*. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1939. 47 p. Paper covers. 10 cents.
- NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL—*Safety Education Methods*. Elementary School. Chicago, Illinois: Education Division, National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive. 1940. 95 p. Paper covers. 50 cents.
- REGAN, M. M.—*The Farm Real Estate Situation, 1936-37, 1937-38, and 1938-39*. United States Department of Agriculture, Circular No. 548. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1939. 42 p. Paper covers. 10 cents.
- SCIENCE RESEARCH ASSOCIATES—*Occupational Monographs*—Chicago, Illinois: Science Research Associates, 600 South Michigan Avenue. Paper covers. 50 cents.
- Opportunities for Statistical Workers*, by D. E. V. Henderson. No. 1. 1938. 56 p.
- Employment in Land Transportation*, by F. B. Streyckmans. No. 2. 1939. 48 p.
- Careers in Consumer Cooperation*, by C. W. Failor. No. 3. 1939. 48 p.
- Jobs in Rural Journalism*, by E. S. Watson. No. 4. 1939. 48 p.
- Teaching as a Career*, by C. O. Houle. No. 5. 1939. 48 p.
- Employment Trends in the Printing Trades*, by E. W. Andrews. No. 6. 1939. 48 p.
- How to Choose a Career*, by J. A. Humphreys. No. 7. 1939. 48 p.
- Highway Jobs*, by R. E. Royall. No. 8. 1939. 48 p.
- Advertising as an Occupation*, by E. W. Davis. No. 9. 1939. 48 p.
- The War and American Jobs*, by C. E. Bowerman. No. 10. 1940. 48 p.
- SOCIETY FOR CURRICULUM STUDY—*Building America*, Volume 5, No. 4. *Arts and the American Craftsman*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: E. M. Hale and Company, 5193 Plankinton Arcade. January, 1940. 30 p. 30 cents.
- SWACKHAMER, GLADYS V.—*Choice and Change of Doctors*. New York: Committee on Research in Medical Economics, 9 Rockefeller Plaza. 1939. 47 p. Paper covers.
- WELTON, KENNETH—*Saving Soil with Sod in the Ohio Valley Region*. Farmers' Bulletin No. 1836. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1939. 29 p. Paper covers. 5 cents.
- CURRICULUM BULLETINS
- ALABAMA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION—*Guide for Curriculum Reorganization in Teacher Education*. Teacher Education Bulletin No. 2. Montgomery, Alabama: State Department of Education. 1940. 44 p. Mimeographed.
- CINCINNATI PUBLIC SCHOOLS—*A Proposed Guide for English*. Grades 4, 5, and 6. Cincinnati, Ohio: Public Schools. 1939. 192 p. Mimeographed.
- CINCINNATI PUBLIC SCHOOLS—*A Proposed Guide for Social Studies*. Grade 4. Cincinnati, Ohio: Public Schools. 1939. 187 p. Mimeographed.
- COLUMBIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS—*A Guide to Curriculum Improvement*. Curriculum Bulletin No. 1. Columbia, South Carolina: Public Schools. 1940. 92 p. Mimeographed.
- DAVIS, PERCY R. AND MORGAN, M. EVAN—*A Balanced Educational Program for Santa Monica*. Santa Monica, California: City Schools. 1940. 12 p. Paper covers.
- FLORIDA PROGRAM FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOLS—*Plans for Florida's School Health Program*. Bulletin No. 4. Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education. 1939. 91 p. Paper covers. 20 cents.
- MEMPHIS CITY SCHOOLS—*Remedial Reading Teachers' Guide*. Grades 7, 8, 9, and 10. Bulletin No. 26. Memphis, Tennessee: City Schools. 1939. 95 p. Mimeographed.
- MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION—*Self-Survey of Instructional Progress, 1939-1940*. Lansing, Michigan: Department of Public Instruction. 1939. 8 p. Paper covers.
- MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION—*The County School Commissioner and the Instructional Program*. Bulletin No. 3019. Lansing, Michigan: Department of Public Instruction. 1939. 33 p. Mimeographed.
- NEW YORK STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT—*An Approach to the Organization of a Social Studies Program for Secondary Schools*. Bulletin No. 1. Albany, New York: State Education Department. 1939. 39 p. Paper covers.
- OREGON, UNIVERSITY OF—*Curriculum Bulletins*. Eugene, Oregon: Curriculum Laboratory, University of Oregon. 1939. Mimeographed.
- Social Studies: A Study Guide for Teachers*, by Hugh B. Wood. Bulletin No. 1. 45 p. 30 cents.
- Curriculum Improvement in the Eugene Public Schools*, by J. F. Cramer and W. H. Dutton. Bulletin No. 2. 39 p. 30 cents.
- Language Arts: A Study Guide for Teachers*, by Hugh B. Wood. Bulletin No. 3. 34 p. 25 cents.
- Free and Inexpensive Materials: An Annotated Bibliography of Bibliographies of Sources of Pamphlets and Other Teaching Aids Obtainable Free or at Small Cost*, by Elizabeth Findly. Bulletin No. 4. 19 p. 20 cents.
- Science: A Study Guide for Teachers*, by Hugh B. Wood. Bulletin No. 5. 21 p. 20 cents.